



Class G 121

Book . II 25

1805a

GPO

1
A NEW SYSTEM
OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY,

OR
A GENERAL DESCRIPTION

OF THE

MOST REMARKABLE COUNTRIES THROUGHOUT
THE KNOWN WORLD;

THEIR RESPECTIVE SITUATIONS, EXTENTS, DIVISIONS, CITIES,
RIVERS, MOUNTAINS, SOILS, AND PRODUCTIONS; THEIR
COMMERCE, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, LAWS, AND RELIGION;

TOGETHER WITH

THEIR PRINCIPAL HISTORICAL EVENTS,

AND

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE IN THE GREAT COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS:

COMPILED

FROM THE MOST MODERN SYSTEMS OF GEOGRAPHY,
AND THE LATEST VOYAGES AND TRAVELS,

AND

CONTAINING MANY IMPORTANT ADDITIONS TO THE GEOGRAPHY
OF THE UNITED STATES THAT HAVE NEVER APPEARED
IN ANY OTHER WORK OF THE KIND.

ILLUSTRATED WITH EIGHT MAPS,

Comprising the latest discoveries, and engraved by the first American Artists.

BY BENJAMIN DAVIES.

17127

PHILADELPHIA:
PUBLISHED BY JACOB JOHNSON & Co.

NO. 147, MARKET-STREET.

1805

G121

125

180502

District of Pennsylvania, to wit:

BE IT REMEMBERED, that on the fourth day of September in the Twenty-ninth year of the Independence of the United States of America, A. D. 1804. Jacob Johnson of the said District has deposited in this Office the Title of a Book the right whereof he claims as Proprietor in the words following to wit :

“ A New System of Modern Geography, or a General Description of
“ the most remarkable countries throughout the known world. Their
“ respective situations, extents, divisions, cities, rivers, mountains,
“ soils, and productions; their commerce, manners, customs, laws, and
“ religion; together with their principal historical events, and political
“ importance in the great commonwealth of nations. Compiled from the
“ most modern systems of Geography, and the latest Voyages and Tra-
“ vels, and containing many important additions to the Geography of
“ the United States that have never appeared in any other work of the
“ kind. Illustrated with eight Maps, comprising the latest discoveries,
“ and engraved by the first American Artists. By Benjamin Davies.”

In conformity to the Act of the Congress of the United States, intituled “An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned.” And also to the Act entitled “An Act supplementary to an Act entitled “An Act for the encouragement of learning by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned,” and extending the benefits thereof to the Arts of designing, engraving, and etching, historical and other prints.

D. CALDWELL,

*Clerk of the District
of Pennsylvania.*

By transfer

17 JI 1907

P R E F A C E.

TO recommend the study of GEOGRAPHY; or a knowledge of the terraqueous globe, to the inquisitive and enlightened citizens of the United States would be trite and useless. What has been sanctioned by the approval of literary men in every other country, has in this deservedly become the subject of general cultivation. All that seems to be required of the Editor, is briefly to premise a few remarks on the treatise now offered to the public, with the reasons that induced him to undertake the compilation.

Observing a frequent demand in the book-shops for a system of Geography, more instructive and entertaining than the dry epitomes used in the schools, as elementary books, and yet less voluminous and expensive than Pinkerton's, Guthrie's, or Walker's Geographical Grammars, the Editor thought that such a treatise might be compiled by judicious extracts from these, with the help of Modern Travels and Voyages. Something more too might be introduced, in describing our own country, its moral and physical state, than is to be found in those volumes, without encroaching on the right, or swelling the treatise to the size, of Morse's American Geography.

To accomplish this intention Pinkerton's abridgement has been recurred to, principally, in detailing the Geography of foreign countries; with the introduction of a few interesting articles which more recent publica-

tions have furnished. This seemed necessary to accommodate the work to the existing state of Europe and Asia, those leading parts of the system with which we now entertain such frequent commercial intercourse. In arranging the materials before us, the perspicuous order of Pinkerton has been adhered to, as closely as the nature of our task would permit.

The freedom that has been indulged, in discriminating the various constitutions of the American states, and the characters of their inhabitants, will perhaps be esteemed rather assuming by some readers; but as truth and justice has been uniformly our rule, as well as independence of judgment, we presume the number will be but small, and that those few will perhaps see cause to change their opinions. But should any material errors be discovered by readers which they will be so obliging as to communicate, in the topography or constitutions of any of the states, or the character of the people, they shall be rectified in the next impression of the work, and the communication will be accepted with grateful sensibility.

In compliance with our engagements to the subscribers, the volume will be preceded by an Alphabetical Catalogue of the most common names of Ancient Geography, explained by the modern appellations of the same places—which can hardly fail to be acceptable to the readers of ancient history, as it is not to be met with in any modern system that we have seen.

Those of our subscribers who have been displeased with the delay that has occurred in this publication, will, we hope, be disposed to pardon us, when they are informed that it has been occasioned, in a great measure, by the increased size of the work; which contains at least one hundred and fifty pages more than was promised or expected when our Prospectus was published.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION, p. i.—*The figure and relative position of the Earth—of the Terrestrial Globe.—Problems performed on the Globe.—Divisions of the surface of the Earth.—Of Maps.—Lengths of Miles in different countries.*

EUROPE, general view of, p. 26.—*England and Wales, 30—Scotland, 57—Ireland, 70—France, 79—Netherlands, 93—Russia in Europe, 98—Russian isles, 108—Austrian dominions, 109—Prussia, 123—Spain, 131—Spanish isles, 144—Turkey in Europe, 145—Turkish isles, 155—Holland, 156—Denmark, 164—Danish isles, 174—Sweden, 176—Swedish isles, 185—Portugal, 186—Switzerland, 192—German States, 201—German States on the north of the Mayn, 205—Ditto on the south of the Mayn, 210—Italy, general description of, 213—Southern part of Italy, 217—Central part of Italy, 219—Northern part of Italy, 221.*

ASIA, general view of, 224—*Linnean table of primeval nations and languages, 225—Turkey in Asia, 228—Islands belonging to Asiatic Turkey, 236—Russian empire in Asia, 239—Islands belonging to Asiatic Russia, 249—Chinese empire, 250—China proper, 251—Chinese islands, 261—Chinese Tatar, 262—Island of Sagalian or Tchoka, 265—Tibet, 267—Japan, 273—Birman empire, comprising Ava and Pegu, 283—Malaya or Malacca, 291—Siam, 293—Other states of exterior India, 297—Hindustan, 300—British possessions and allies, 302—Maratta states, 303—Seiks, ib.—Gangetic Hindostan, or the countries*

on the Ganges, 317---Sindetic Hindostan, or the countries on the Indus, 321---Central Hindostan, or the middle provinces, 323---Southern division of Hindostan, 324---Island of Ceylon, 327---Persia, 330---Independent Tatory, 346---Arabia, 355---Asiatic isles, 346---Australasia, comprising New Guinea, New Britain and New Ireland, with the Solomon isles, New Caledonia and the New Hebrides, New Zealand and Van Diemen's land, 373---Polynesia, comprising the Pelew islands, Ladrones, Carolines, Sandwich islands, Marquesas, Society and Friendly islands, 382.---

AMERICA, general view of, 390---NORTH AMERICA, 397---Greenland, 404---Hudson's bay, 406---Labrador, 407---Central parts, 408---Western coast, 410---British possessions, 411---Canada, 412---New Brunswick, 417---Nova Scotia, 418---Cape Breton, 419---Newfoundland, 420---Bermudas, 421---United States of America, 423---New Hampshire, 442---Vermont, 449---Massachusetts, including Main, 457 Rhode Island, 467---Connecticut, 474---New York, 481---New Jersey, 491---Pennsylvania, 498---Delaware, 511---Maryland, 516---Virginia, 522---North Carolina, 531---South Carolina, 537---Georgia, 545---Kentucky, 551---Tennessee, 557---Ohio, 561---Mississippi territory, 564---Indiana, 566---Louisiana, 567---Spanish Dominions in North America, 571---American Islands, or West Indies, including Cuba, Saint Domingo, Jamaica, Porto Rico, Carribbee islands, and the Bahama or Lucayos islands, 581---SOUTH AMERICA, 587---Spanish Dominions, 591---Portuguese, 595---French, 597---Dutch, 598 Islands belonging to South America, 599.

THE

Common Names of Ancient Geography,

Explained by the synonymous modern names, and
arranged in alphabetical order.

A.

Acheron, a river in Albania, now called Velechi.

Actium, capital of Livadia, now called Figala.

Acroceraunes, mountains in Albania, now mount Chimera.

Adriatic Sea, now gulf of Venice.

Albion, now England.

Allemania, now Franconia and Suabia.

Allobroges, now Savoy and Dauphiné.

Ammon, now Barca in Africa.

Angles, ancient inhabitants of Holstein, the progenitors of the English nation.

Arcadia, now a part of Zaconia in Morea.

Armorica, now the province of Bretagne in France.

Armenia Major, now Turcomania, in Asia.

Arbela, a place in Diarbeck, where Alexander routed Darius king of Persia.

Assyria, a part of modern Persia and Diarbeck.

Athos, a famous mountain of Macedonia, now Monte Santo.

Atlantis, supposed by some to be America.

Ausonia, now Terra di Laboro, in Apulia.

B.

Babylon, now Bagdad, the capital of Diarbeck.

Bactriana, now Zagati, or Usbecks, a province on the borders of Persia.

Baleares, now the islands of Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica.

Batavia, now Holland.

Belgium, now Flanders.

Bithynia, now Becsangil in Natolia.

Boristhenes, now the river Dnieper, in Russia.

Bosphorus Thraciæ, now the straits of Constantinople.

Byzantium, now Constantinople.

Betica, part of Spain, now containing Granada, Andalusia, part of Castile and Estramadura.

Brigantes, inhabitants of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Durham, Westmoreland and Cumberland. (O. E.)

C.

Campania, now part of Calabria, in the kingdom of Naples.

Cannæ, in the province of Bari in the kingdom of Naples, famous for the destruction of a Roman army by Hannibal.

Cantabria, now Biscay and Asturias.

Cappadocia, now Amasia, in Natolia.

Carthago, now ruins, about nine miles from Tunis, in Barbary.

Caspianæ Januæ, famous mountain in Persia, near the Caspian sea.

Caucasus, part of Mount Taurus, between the Black and the Caspian seas.

Chalcis, now Negropont, or the capital of that island.

Cattuellani, people of Buckingham, Bedford, and Hertfordshire. (O. E.)

Casaraugusta, a town of Spain, now Saragossa.

Ghersonese (Cimbric) now Jutland.

Ghersonese (Tauric) now Crimea.

Cyclades, islands of the Archipelago.

Cilicia, now Caramania, in Natolia.

Cimbri, the inhabitants of Jutland.

Complutum, now Alcala de Henares, in Spain.

Clusium, a town of Tuscany, now in ruins.

Colchides, now Mingrelia and Georgia, in Asia.

Corcyrum, now Corfu, an island off the coast of Albania.

Creta, now Candia, an island, at the entrance of the Archipelago.

D.

Dacia, now part of Upper Hungary, of Transylvania, Vallachia and Moldavia.

Delphos, now Castria, in Livadia or Achaia.

Delos, now Sdille, an island of the Archipelago.

E.

Ecbatana, now Tauris, a large city in Persia.

Eleusis, now Lespina, a town near the Egean sea, famous for the temple of Ceres.

Elides, that part of Morea, now called Belvedere.

Emathia, a part of Macedonia.

Ethiopia, now Abyssinia, and Nubia.

Etolia, a part of Livadia, in Greece.

Etruria, now Tuscany.

Eubæa, now the island of Negropont, in Turkey.

Euphrates, now *Frat*, a famous river of Asia, on which once stood the city of Babylon.

Euripus, an arm of the sea, between Negropont and Livadia.

F.

Falerna, a mountain in the kingdom of Naples, now Monte Massico, once famous for its grapes.

G.

Galatia, now Chiangara, a province of Natolia.

Gallia, now France and Lombardy, divided into Cisalpine and Transalpine, as it was more or less distant from Rome.

Gallia Cisalpina, now Lombardy, was divided into Transpadana and Cispadana, as it was on one or the other side of the river Po, in respect of Rome. Cispadana was called also Togata, on account of the toga, or long gown worn by the inhabitants.

Gallia Transalpina, was likewise divided into two parts, one called Comata, on account of the long hair of the inhabitants, comprising the Lionese, part of Normandy, the Isle of France, the Orleannois, Touraine, Maine, Bretagne, Franche Compté and all its dependencies, Guienne, Gascoigne, Roussillion, Triers, Spire, Worms, Strasbourg, Mentz, Toul, Verdun, and all the country between the Sein, the Maese, and the Rhine, from Coblentz down to the sea; the other called Braccata, on account of the Braeca, a sort of breeches worn in that country, comprehending Languedoc, Provence, Dauphiné and Savoy.

Gades, now Cadiz, a city of Spain.

Garamantes, now Zara, or Nigritia, in Africa.

Gennabium, now Orleans, a city of France.

Getes, people of Moldavia and Vallachia.

Gnosse, now Candia.

Getulia, now Bildulgerid in Africa.

Granicus, now Lazzara, a river of Natolia, famous for a victory obtained by Alexander over Darius, near its banks.

Græcia Magna, now the south part of Italy.

H.

Halicarnassus, now Tobia, a city of Caramania.

Hannonia, now Hainault in Flanders.

Helicon, now Zagara, a mountain of Livadia.

Hellespontus, now the straits of Dardanelles.

Helvetii, the inhabitants of Switzerland.

Herules, a people in the north of Germany.

Hesperides, a name given by the Greeks to Italy, and by the Italians to Spain.

Hircania, now Tarabistan, a province of Persia.

Hirpini, a people settled in a part of the kingdom of Naples

Hispalis, now Seville, a town of Spain.

I.

Iberia, now Spain.

Idumea, a small country between Judea, Egypt, and Arabia.

Illyria, now Slavonia, Dalmatia, and Croatia.

Insubria, now part of Lombardy, towards Como.

Ionian sea, washes the western shore of Greece up to the gulf of Venice.

Itrurea, a small country, along the river Jordan, opposite Tyros.

Itius portus, now Boulogne, a sea port of France, the rendezvous of gun-boats intended for invasion of England.

L.

Lacedemon, or *Sparta*, now Misitra, a city of Morea.

Laconia, the country of which Sparta was the capital.

Laodicea, now Licha, or Ladikia in Syria, about seven leagues from Antioch.

Latium, now Campania di Roma.

Laurentum, now San Lorenzo, in Campania di Roma.

Lemnos, now Stalimene, } islands of the Archipelago.

Iesbos, now Mitilene, }

Lybia, now Nigritia and Barca.

Liburnia, a part of Dalmatia and Croatia.

Licaonia, now the district of Cogni in Natolia.

Liguria, now the Republic of Genoa.

Locrin, the lake of Averno, in the kingdom of Naples.

Lotharingia, the duchy of Lorrain.

Lucania, now the Basilicate, in the kingdom of Naples.

Lusitania, now Portugal.

Lutetia, now Paris, the capital of France.

M.

Marathon, now a village of Livadia, where the Greeks routed the Persians.

Massagetes, now Turquestan, in Asia.

Marcomanni, peopled the country which lies in the south-west of Bohemia.

Mauritania, now Algiers, Tunis, Fez and Morocco.

Media, now part of Persia, towards Aderbeitzan.

Meander, now Mandre, a river of Natolia.

Melita, now Malta, an island in the Mediterranean.

Memphis, now Grand Cairo, the capital of Egypt.

Mesopotamia, now Diarbeck, in Asia.

Miletus, now Palatcha, in Anatolia, a town of ancient Ionia famous for its fine wool.

Mæsia, now Servia and Bulgaria, in Europe.

Missenia, now St. Adrian, a town of Morea, near Corinth.

Moguntia, now the city of Mentz, in Germany.

Monabia, now the Isle of Man.

Mona, now Anglesea, in Wales.

N.

Nicomedia, a city of Natolia, formerly the capital of Bythinia, and destroyed by an earthquake in 356.

Niniveh, now a heap of ruins, near the city of Mosul, on the river Tigris.

Noricum, now part of Austria, Styria, Carinthia and Bavaria.

Numantia, now Garrai, upon the Duro, a city of Spain.

Numidia, now Biledulgerid, in Africa.

O.

Olympus, a mount in Thessaly, near the gulf of Thessalonica.

Olympia, now Longanico, in Morea, where the Olympic games were celebrated.

Orchades, now the Isles of Orkney.

Orontes, now Oronz, or Tarfar, a river of Natolia in Asia.

P.

Padus, now Po, a river of Italy.

Pannonia, now part of Styria, Carniola, Carinthia, Hungary and Bosnia.

Parthenope, now Naples, in Italy.

Parthia, now Arac, in Asia.

Peloponnesus, now Morea, part of Turkey in Europe.

Pelusium, near the ruins of which stands Damietta, in Egypt.

Pœnicia, now a part of Suria, or Syria, in Asia.

Picenum, now Ancona, in Italy.

Pontus, now part of Aladulia, in Natolia.

Propontis, now the sea of Marmora.

Ptolemais, now St. John D'Acre, in Syria, famous for the defeat of Buonaparte and his eastern army by a handful of English sailors, under Sir Sidney Smith.

R.

Rhetia, now the Grisons, as far as Trent.

Rhodopus, now Basilissa, a mountain in Romania.

Rhegium, now Rezgo, a town in the promontory of Italy that is nearest to Sicily.

Rubicon, now Pisatello, a river that divided Italy from Cisalpine Gaul.

Rutuli, inhabitants of the country now Campania di Roma.

S.

Saba, now Zibit, the metropolis of Arabia Fœlix.

Saguntum, now Morvedro, a city of Valencia, in Spain.

Samnites, inhabitants of the country now called Capitanate in Italy.

Sarmatia, now Poland, Muscovy and part of Tatary.

Sinus Adriaticus, now the gulf of Venice.

Suenones, ancient inhabitants of Sweden.

Scandinavia, now Denmark, Norway and Sweden.

Scythia, an extensive region, now Tatary.

Seguani, inhabitants of Burgogne, or Franche Comté.

Sicambria, part of Germany near to where the Main unites with the Rhine.

Sidon, now Said in Syria.

Sogdiana, now a part of Tatary, bordering on Persia.

Styx, a fountain in Morea, the water of which is extremely cold.

Suevia, now Swabia, in Germany.

T.

Tanais, now the Don, a river that divides Europe and Asia.

Thebes, now Stives, a city of Livadia, in Turkey.

Thracia, now Romania.

Trinacria, now the island of Sicily.

Tyrrbene sea, now the sea of Tuscany.

Tyrus, now Sur, in Syria.

V.

Vandalia, now that part of Germany which lies along the Baltick.

Vindelici, now a country between the Danube, the Inn, and the Alps.

Volsci, inhabitants of Calabria, in the south of Italy.

Vindebona, now Vienna, capital of Austria.

INTRODUCTION.

AMONG all the liberal arts and sciences that are taught in schools, there is not one, perhaps, that has more to recommend it to general cultivation than GEOGRAPHY, or a knowledge of the globe we inhabit.

To understand the theory of this science, with as much of Astronomy as respects the annual revolution of our planet round the sun, and its diurnal motion on its own axis; to be acquainted with its component parts; its various inhabitants; its physical and political divisions; is a delightful study, considered only as a subject of amusement.

But if we take into view the utility of the science, when applied to the purposes of navigation and commerce—with the knowledge it unfolds of the laws, religions, manners, customs, arts, and improvements of our fellow-men, in all their various dispersions, and the tendency it has to remove local prejudices, and to render the families of the earth more useful to one-another, it will be esteemed as one of the most useful branches of a liberal education.

To have a perfect comprehension of GEOGRAPHY, it is necessary to begin the work with a summary view of Astronomy, as far at least as a knowledge of one is proper to render the other plain and intelligible.

Of all the heavenly bodies that fall under our observation, the most conspicuous is that glorious luminary, the sun, the fountain of light and heat to the several planets which move round it, and which together with it form what is called the solar system. The path by which the planets move round the sun, is called their orbit; and it is now

fully proved by Astronomers, that there are seven planets that revolve round it, each in its own orbit. The names of these, in the order of their approximation to the centre of the sun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two first, because they are nearer the sun, and move within the earth, are called *interior* planets, and the four last, because they move without the orbit of the earth, are called *exterior* planets. To assist the memory, and form an idea of the proportional distance of each planet from the sun; if the greatest extent of the Georgium Sidus from the sun were divided into 190 parts, the proportional distance of the rest of the orbits would be; Mercury 5, Venus 7, Earth 10, Mars 15, Jupiter 52, and Saturn 95. We shall only consider the two-fold motion of the Earth, or the planet on which we live.

The spherical figure of the Earth being fully proved by the voyages of many navigators who have sailed round it, as well as by many other well known facts, the hypothesis of its motion is evidently rendered the more probable. For if it move not round the sun, not only the sun, but all the stars and planets, must move round the Earth, with a velocity that exceeds all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be easily explained by imagining the earth to move round the sun in the space of one year, and to revolve on its own axis once in 24 hours.

To form a conception of these two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table, or a bowling-green: the ball proceeds forward upon the green or table, not by sliding along like a plane upon wood, but by turning round its own axis, an imaginary line drawn through its centre, and ending on its surface. The earth, in twenty-four hours, revolves from west to east, while the inhabitants on the surface may conceive that the sun and stars move from east to west; like men on the deck of a ship, who are insensible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them, in a contrary direction. This diurnal motion of the earth clearly conceived, will enable us more easily to comprehend its annual motion round the sun. For as that lu-

minary seems to have a diurnal motion round the earth, which is really occasioned by the diurnal motion of the latter round its own axis, so, in the course of the year, he seems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to rise and set in different points, which is really caused by the annual motion of the earth, in its orbit round the sun, which it completes in the space of one year....As to the first of these motions we owe the succession of days and nights, so, to the second we are indebted for the seasons of the year, and the difference in the length of days and nights.

But it is necessary to observe that the axis of the earth is not exactly parallel to, or in a line with, the axis of its orbit; because then the same parts of the earth would be turned toward the sun in every diurnal revolution, which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitudes of the seasons, arising from the difference in the length of days and nights. This is therefore not the case:....In the earth's whole annual course round the sun, its axis is $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees inclined from a perpendicular to its orbit.... Of this we may conceive some idea, by supposing a spindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball forward, while one end of the spindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards some quarter of the heavens, we may form an idea of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the spindle to the ground; and, of course, may comprehend the cause of the vicissitude of the seasons, and of the difference in the length of the days and nights.

OF THE GLOBE.

By the globe is meant a representation of the different places and countries on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Geographers have represented the situation of one place with regard to another, or with regard to the earth itself, by certain artificial circles. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, nothing was more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined, as they lay on one side of the

equator or the other. The reader having obtained a clear idea of this leading principle, we may proceed to consider the description of our earth, as represented by the artificial globe.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH. Though in speaking of the earth with the other planets, it may be sufficient to consider it as a spherical, or globular body, yet Sir Isaac Newton has demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that it is an *oblate spheroid*, or that it is flatted at the poles, and juttet out towards the equator....and he computed the difference to be in the ratio of 229 to 230... The reason of this may be easily understood by a familiar proof. If a ball of soft clay be fixed on a spindle, and whirled round, we shall find it will jut out, or project toward the middle, and flatten towards the poles.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH. According to the best observations, the diameter of the earth has been computed to be 7,990 miles, and its circumference 25,038 miles, English measure. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of measuring, to be divided into 360 parts, or degrees, each degree containing 60 geographical miles, or $69\frac{1}{2}$ English miles. These degrees are subdivided; each degree into 60 minutes, and each minute into 60 seconds, and are marked thus d'. m'. s". in geographical calculations.

AXIS OF THE EARTH. The axis of the earth is that imaginary line, passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to revolve once in 24 hours. The extreme points of this line are called the poles, one in the North, and the other in the South, and are of great use in determining the distance, and situation of places, as they approach to, or recede from, the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE. These are commonly divided into *greater*, six in number, and *lesser*, which are only four. The former pass through the centre of the earth, and divide it into two equal parts or hemispheres; the latter are parallel to the greater, but cannot pass through the centre, or divide the earth into two equal parts.

EQUATOR. The first great circle is the equator, or equinoctial line; because the sun, when moving in it,

makes the days and nights of equal length, all over the world. It passes through the east and west points of the globe, and divides it into northern and southern hemispheres, and is itself divided into 360 degrees.

HORIZON. This great circle is represented on the globe, by a broad circular piece of wood encompassing the globe, and dividing it into *upper* and *lower* hemispheres. It is distinguished also into *sensible* and *rational*. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us, and determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place. The second encompasses the globe exactly in the middle, and its poles are called the *zenith* and *nadir*; the former exactly over our heads, and the latter under our feet.—The broad wooden circle on the terrestrial globe that represents the horizon has several circles drawn upon it, exhibiting the signs of the zodiac, the number of degrees in each, and the days of the month, &c.

MERIDIAN. This circle is represented by the brass ring on which the globe hangs and turns: it cuts the equator at right angles, is divided into 360 degrees, and serves to divide the earth into eastern and western hemispheres. It is called the *meridian*, because when the sun comes to the south part of it, he has reached his meridian altitude, and it is then *meridies*, or mid-day.—There are commonly marked on the globe 24 meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC. The Zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve signs are represented. In the middle of this circle, is supposed another called the *ecliptic*, in which the sun never deviates in his annual course, advancing 30 degrees in every month.—The twelve signs are,

1. Aries	♈....March	7. Libra	♎....September
2. Taurus	♉....April	8. Scorpio	♏....October
3. Gemini	♊....May	9. Sagittarius	♐....November
4. Cancer	♋....June	10. Capricorn	♑....December
5. Leo	♌....July	11. Aquarius	♒....January
6. Virgo	♍....August	12. Pisces	♓....February

COLURES. If we imagine two great circles, both passing through the poles of the world; one of them through the equinoctial points aries and libra, and the other through the solstitial points cancer and capricorn, we have an idea of the colures....the one is called the equinoctial, the other the solstitial colure.—These are all the *great circles*.

TROPICS. These are two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, distant from it $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees: one towards the north, called the tropic of cancer; the other towards the south, called the tropic of capricorn.

POLAR CIRCLES. If two other circles are supposed to be drawn at the same distance of $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from the polar points, these are called the polar circles. The northern is called the *arctic*, and the southern the *ant-arctic*....These are the four lesser circles.

ZONE. The Zones are 5 in number: the torrid zone, or that portion of the earth lying between the tropics, which by the ancients was erroneously supposed to be uninhabitable, on account of its heat....two temperate, or that portion comprised between the tropics and the polar circles—and two frigid, that are inclosed within the polar circles and the poles, and are the most unfit for human habitation of any part of the earth.

CLIMATES. These are certain divisions of the earth, determined by the various lengths of the day; and there are 30 of them between the equator and either pole. In the first 24, the days increase by half hours: and in the remaining six, which lie between the polar circle and the pole, the days increase by months. Georgia, and the Carolinas are comprised within the 5th climate, and the longest day about 14h. 30m.; the middle states within the 6th, longest day about 15h. New York and the eastern states within the 7th, the longest day about 15h. 30m.

LATITUDE. The latitude of any place is its distance from the equator, either north or south, but can never exceed 90 degrees either way, as such is the distance from the equator to either pole.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE. These are imaginary circles, parallel with the equator which are drawn to in-

tersect the meridian of any place, and to designate its true situation.

LONGITUDE. The longitude of any place is its situation with regard to the first meridian, reckoned toward the east or west. Modern globes and maps fix the first meridian in the capital city where they are made. In England, the first meridian is fixed at London or Greenwich; in France, at Paris; and in the United States, at Philadelphia. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish as the meridians approach the poles. Hence, in sixty degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree at the equator, and so of the rest.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED ON THE GLOBE.

1. *To find the Latitude of a place.*

Bring the place under that semicircle of the brazen meridian where the divisions begin at the equator, and observe what degree the place is under, and it is the latitude required.

2. *To rectify the Globe to the Latitude of a place.*

Elevate the pole above the horizon till its altitude, observed on the brazen meridian, be equal to the latitude of the place, and it is then said to be rectified to the latitude, and it so far stands right for the solution of all problems for that latitude.

3. *To find the Longitude of a place from Philadelphia.*

Bring the place to the graduated edge of the brazen meridian, and observe the point of the equator which lies under it, and the distance of that point from the point where the meridian of Philadelphia cuts the equator, is the longitude required.

4. *Given the Latitude and Longitude of a place, to find where the place is.*

Bring the given degree of longitude to the brazen meridian, and then under the given degree of latitude upon that meridian, you have the place required.

5. *When it is noon at any place A, to find the hour at any other place B.*

Bring A to the meridian, and set the index to XII; then turn the globe till B comes under the meridian, and the index will shew the hour at B. If it be not noon at A, set the index to the hour, and proceed as before, and you get the corresponding hour at B.

6. *To find the distance of A from B.*

Bring A to the meridian, and screw the quadrant of altitude over it, and carry it to B, and you get the number of degrees between A and B, which multiply by 69,2, the miles in one degree, and you get the distance required.

7. *To find the bearing of B from A.*

Rectify the globe for the latitude of A, and bring A to the meridian, and fix the quadrant of altitude to A; then direct the quadrant to B, and the point where it cuts the horizon shews the bearing required.

8. *At an hour of the day at B, to find the place A, to which the Sun is vertical.*

Find the sun's place in the ecliptic, and bring it to the brazen meridian, and you find its declination on the meridian; then bring B to the meridian, and set the index to the given hour, and turn the globe till the index comes to XII at noon, and the place under the sun's declination upon the meridian is that required.

9. *To know the length of the day and night at any place at any time of the year.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the place; find the sun's place in the ecliptic at that time; which being brought to the east side of the horizon, set the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII; and turning the globe about till the aforesaid place of the ecliptic touch the western side of the horizon, look upon the horary circle; and where the index points, reckon the number of hours to the upper figure of XII, for that is the length of the day; the complement of which to 24 hours is the length of the night.

10. *To explain, in general, the alteration of the lengths of the days, and the difference of the seasons.*

Put patches upon the ecliptic from aries both ways to the tropics, and let them represent so many different situations of the sun; and then, the globe being rectified to the latitude of the place (by art. 2), turn it about and you will see, for north latitude, that as the patches approach the tropic of cancer, the corresponding diurnal arcs will increase; and as the patches approach the tropic of capricorn, the diurnal arcs will decrease; also, the former arcs are greater than a semicircle, and the latter less; and the patch in the equator will describe a semicircle above the horizon. When therefore the sun is in the equator, the days and nights are equal; as he advances towards the tropic of cancer, the days increase, and the nights decrease, till he comes to the tropic, where the days are found to be longest, and the nights shortest; then as he approaches the equator, the length of the days diminishes, and that of the nights increases, and when the sun comes to the equator, the length of the days and nights is equal. Then as he advances towards capricorn, the days continue to diminish and the nights increase till he comes to that tropic, where the days are shortest and the nights are longest; and then as he approaches the equator, the days increase and the nights diminish; and when he comes to the equator, the days and nights are

equal. And whatever be the latitude, when the sun is in the equator, days and nights are equal. To an inhabitant at the pole, the sun will appear to be half a year above the horizon, and half a year below. To an inhabitant at the equator, the days and nights will appear to be always equal; also, all the heavenly bodies will be found to be as long above the horizon as below. At the arctic circle, the longest day will be found to be 24 hours, and the longest night 24 hours; this appears by rectifying the globe to that latitude, and observing the patches at the tropics of cancer and of capricorn. Lastly, it will be found that all places enjoy equally the sun in respect to time, and are equally deprived of it; the length of the days at one time of the year being found exactly equal to the length of the nights at the opposite season. This appears by putting patches upon the ecliptic, at opposite points of it.

11. *To find at any Day and Hour, the Places where the Sun is rising, setting, or on the Meridian; also, those Places which are enlightened, and where the Twilight is beginning and ending.*

Find (by art. 8) the place to which the sun is vertical at the given hour, and bring the same to the meridian, and rectify the globe to a latitude equal to the sun's declination. Then to all those places under the *western* semicircle of the horizon, the sun is *rising*; to those under the *eastern* semicircle, the sun is *setting*; and to those under the *meridian* it is *noon*.

Also, all places above the horizon are enlightened, and all those below are in the dark hemisphere.

Lastly, in all those places 18° below the western horizon, the twilight is just beginning in the morning, and in those 18° below the eastern horizon, is just ending in the evening.

12. *To find all the Places to which a Lunar Eclipse is visible at any Instant.*

Find the place to which the sun is vertical at any time, and bring that place to the zenith, and the eclipse will be

visible to all the hemisphere *under* the horizon, because the moon is then opposite to the sun.

ON THE DIVISIONS OF THE SURFACE OF THE EARTH.

1. The surface of the earth contains *land* and *water*. The great collection of water is called the *sea*, or the *ocean*; and this is divided into three principal parts; the *Atlantic* Ocean, which divides *Europe* and *Africa* from *America*; the *Pacific* Ocean, or *great South Sea*, which divides *Asia* from *America*; and the *Indian* Sea, which lies between *Africa* and *Malacca*, *Sumatra*, *Java*, *New Holland*, &c. Besides these, there are others which take their names from the countries against which they are situated: as the *Irish* Sea, the *German* Sea. There is also the *Mediterranean* Sea, dividing *Europe* from *Africa*; the *Black* Sea; the *Caspian* Sea, which is not connected with the other Seas; the *Red* Sea, &c. &c.

2. A *bay*, or *gulf*, is a part of the sea running into the land, so as to have a considerable proportion of it, more or less according to circumstances, bounded by shores; as the bay of *Biscay*, the bay of *Bengal*, *Hudson's* bay, *Cardigan* bay; the gulf of *Venice*, the gulf of *Mexico*, the gulf of *Japan*, &c. &c. If the extent into the land be but small, it is called a *creek*, a *haven*, or a *road*.

3. A *strait*, or *straight*, is a narrow part of the sea running between two countries, and connecting two seas; as the straits of *Dover*, the straits of *Gibraltar*, the straits of *Sunda*, the straits of *Magellan*, &c. &c.

4. A considerable body of inland fresh water is called a *lake*; as the lake of *Geneva*, lake *Ontario*, lake of *Derwent*, &c. &c.

5. A considerable stream of inland water which runs into the sea, is called a *river*; and smaller streams which run into a river, are called *brooks*.

6. A *current* is a stream of water upon the sea. Under the equator there are some very violent ones, against which a ship cannot make any way. There is one which carries a ship very swiftly from *Africa* to *America*, but it cannot return the same way. Governor Pownall ob-

serves that this current performs a continual circulation, setting out from the coast of *Guinea*, crossing over the *Atlantic*, setting into the gulf of *Mexico* by the south, and sweeping round by the bottom of the gulf, it issues on the north side, and goes along the coast of *North America* till it arrives at *Newfoundland*, where it is turned back across the *Atlantic* to the coast of *Europe*, and thence southward to the point from which it sets out.— In *St. George's Channel* there is a current which usually sets in eastward. From the *Baltic* a current sets into the *British Channel*. It is generally allowed, that there is always a current setting round the Capes of *Finisterre* and *Ortegal* into the bay of *Biscay*; and Mr. *RENNELL* has discovered that this current is continued, and passes about N. W. by W. from the coast of *France*, to the westward of *Scilly* and *Ireland*. In crossing the *Atlantic* therefore for the *English Channel*, he advises the navigator to keep in the parallel of $48^{\circ}. 45'$, at the highest, lest the current should carry him upon the rocks of *Scilly*. From an ignorance of this current, many ships have been lost on those rocks.

7. A very great extent of land is called a *continent*, of which there are two; one contains *Europe*, *Asia*, and *Africa*; and the other contains *America*; and these are called the four quarters of the world; the former is called the *Eastern*, and the latter the *Western* continent.

8. A small extent of land surrounded by the sea, is called an *Island*.

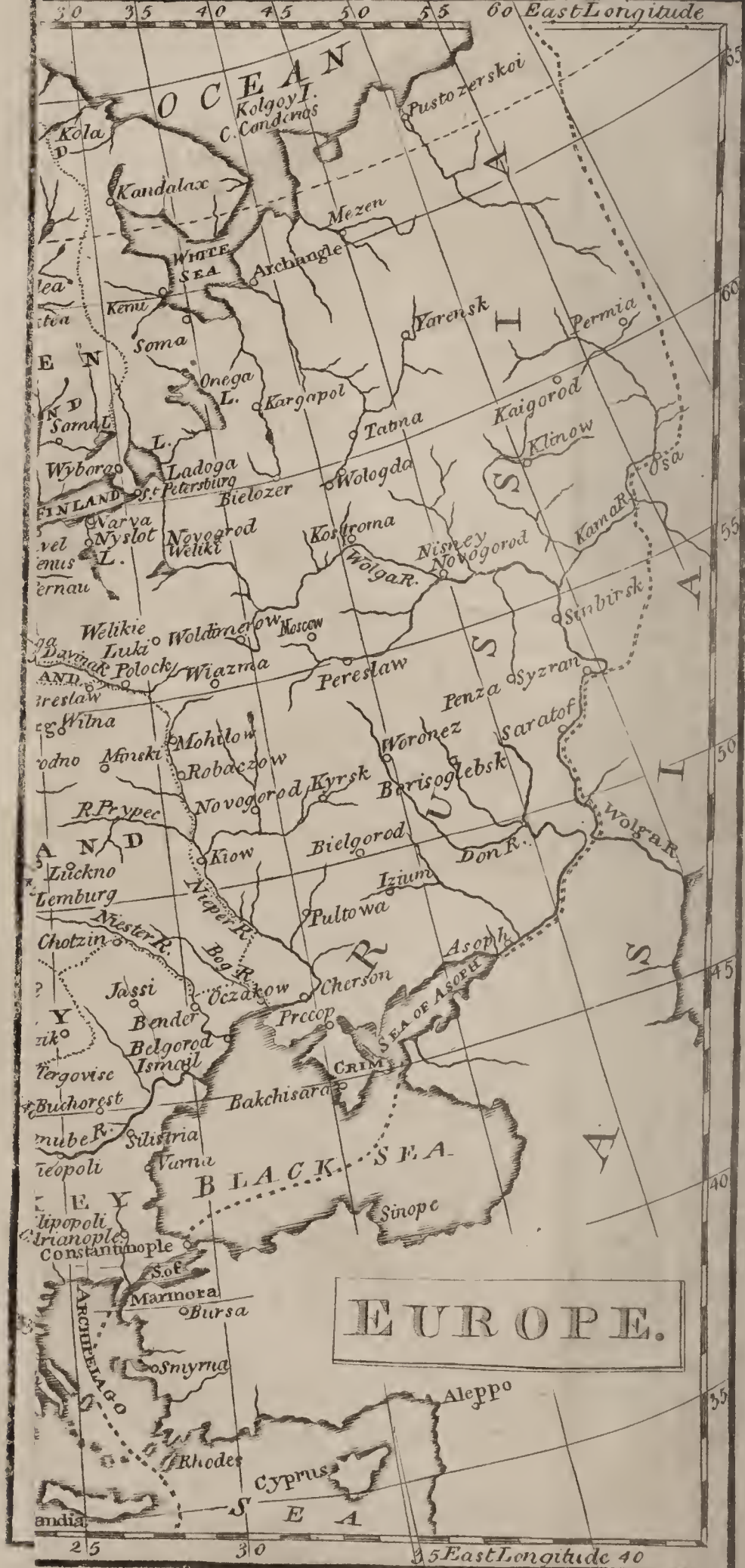
9. If land run out from the main and be joined to it by a narrow slip—the first is called a *peninsula*, and the latter an *isthmus*.

10. If land jut out into the sea, without an isthmus, it is called a *promontory*, and the point of it is called a *cape*.

MAPS. A map is a representation of the Earth, or a part of it, on a plane surface. It differs from a globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth, whereas a map, being a plane surface, cannot represent a spherical body. The *cardinal points* are the north, south, east and west. The north is considered as the upper part of the map, and the south the bottom; the east is on the right hand, and the



EUROPE.



west on the left. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from side to side, *parallels of latitude*. The outermost of the meridians, and parallels, are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distance, &c. of places may be found, as on the artificial globe.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.
Agreeably to Dr. Halley's calculations.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Russian Verst is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ of an English mile.

The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile, is nearly one English mile.

The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Scotch, and Irish mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The Indian is almost 3 English.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The German is more than 4 English.

The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 English.

The French common league is near 3 English; and

The English marine league is 3 English miles.

GEOGRAPHY.

EUROPE.

AS EUROPE is the seat of letters and arts, and the greatest exertions of mental energy in every department; and is besides the native region of the chief modern geographers, it is generally the region first treated. But before we proceed to consider the several kingdoms and states comprised in this division of the globe, it may be proper to offer a brief and general description of the whole.

EXTENT. This part of the globe is smallest in extent, yielding considerably to Africa. From the Portuguese cape, called by our mariners the Rock of Lisbon, in the west, to the Uralian mountains in the east, the length may be about 3,300 British miles; and the breadth from the North Cape in Danish Lapland, to Cape Matapan, the southern extremity of Greece, may be about 2,350. The contents in square miles have been calculated at two millions and a half: the inhabitants 150,000,000.

LIMITS. On the south, the continental part, is limited by the Mediterranean sea, on the west by the Atlantic, which contains the furthest European isle that of Iceland, Greenland being regarded as a part of North America. In the opinion of several geographers, the Azores or Western Isles are clearly European, being nearer to Portugal than to any other continental land, while the Madeiras, for the same reason, belong to Africa. On the north, the boundary is the Arctic Ocean, embracing the remote isles of Spitzbergen and Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land. On the east, it is bounded by Asia.

ANCIENT POPULATION. The ancient population of Europe consisted of the Celts in the west and south: the Fins in the north-east, and the Laps or Laplanders, in the furthest north. Those ancient inhabitants, who seem to have been thinly scattered, were driven towards the west and north by the Scythians or Goths from Asia, whose descendants occupy the greater part of Europe; by the Sarmatians or Slavonic tribes, also from Asia, the ancestors of the Russians, Poles, &c. and who were

accompanied by the Heruli, using what is now called the Lettic speech, to be found in Prussia, Lithuania, Samogitia, Courland, and Livonia, being a-kin to the Slavonic language, yet with many shades of distinction. From Africa the colony of Iberi, and northern Mauretani, passed into Spain at a very early period. The later accession of Hungarians, and Turks from Asia may likewise be commemorated.

RELIGION. The Christian Religion prevails throughout Europe except in Turkey, where however at least one half of the inhabitants are attached to the Greek church. Wherever the Christian faith has penetrated, knowledge, industry, and civilization have followed: among the barbarous tribes in the north the progress was unhappily slow, Scandinavia remaining Pagan till the eleventh century; and some Slavonic tribes on the south of the Baltic till the thirteenth; nay, it is not above a century ago since the Laplanders were converted by missions from Denmark. The two grand distinctions are Catholics and Protestants: the former in the south, where the passions are more warm and the imagination more delighted with splendour; the latter in the north, where the operations of the judgment predominate.

CLIMATE. This fair portion of the globe is chiefly situated in the temperate zone: if such distinctions have not vanished from geography since modern discoveries have evinced, that the climate often depends on local causes; that the Alps in a southern latitude present mountains of ice unknown in Lapland; that the torrid zone abounds with water and habitations, and may perhaps contain mountains covered with snow. Yet freedom from the excessive heats of Asia and Africa has contributed to the vigour of the frame, and the energy of the mind.

INLAND SEAS. In a general view of Europe one of the most striking and interesting features is the number and extent of the inland seas; justly regarded as chief causes of the extensive industry and civilization, and consequent superiority to the other grand divisions of the globe. Among inland seas the Mediterranean is justly pre-eminent, having been the centre of civilization to ancient and modern Europe. The columns of Hercules marked its western boundary; being the mountain of

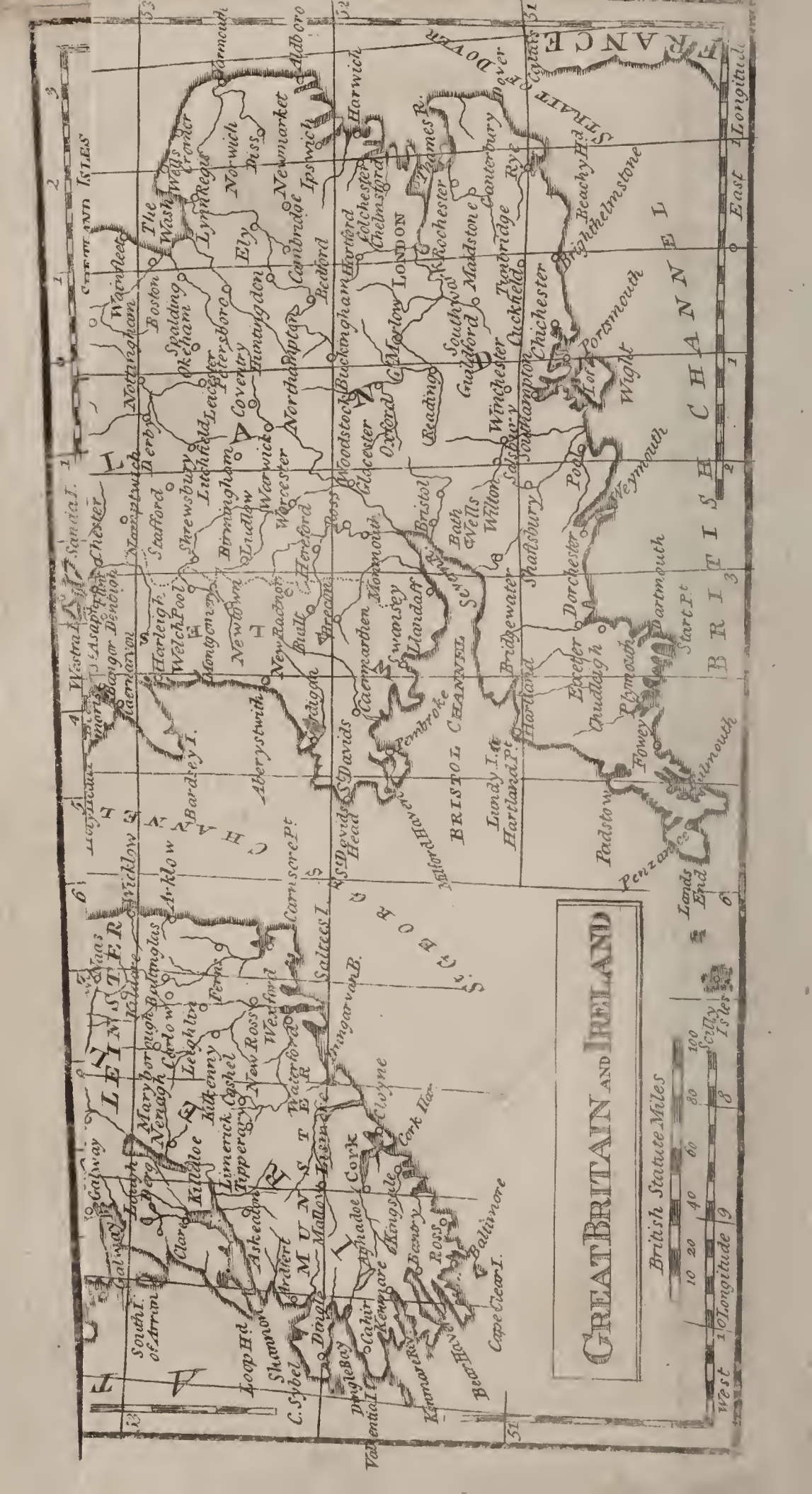
rock of Abyla, now called Ceuta, and Kalpe in Spain, the Gibraltar of modern fame. The length of the Mediterranean is about 2000 miles to its farthest extremity in Syria; but in ancient maps the length has been extended to about 2500 miles. On its northern side open two large gulfs, that of Venice and the Archipelago; the former being the Adriatic, the latter the Egean sea of the ancients. From this last a strait called the Hellespont conducts to the sea of Marmora, the classical Propontis: and another now styled the strait of Constantinople, the ancient Thracian Bosphorus, leads to the Euxine or Black sea; which to the north presents the shallow Palus Mæotis, or sea of Azof, the utmost maritime limit of Europe in that quarter.

The second grand inland sea of Europe is the Baltic, by the Germans called the Eastern sea. This extensive inlet opens from the German sea by a gulf pointing N. E. called the Skager Rack; and afterwards passes south in what is called the Cattegat, to the S. E. of which is the Sound of Elsinore, a strait where vessels pay a tribute of courtesy to Denmark. The Baltic afterwards spreads widely to the N. E. and is divided into two extensive branches called the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, both covered or impeded with ice for four or five months of the northern winter.

The third and last inland sea of Europe is that called the White Sea in the north of Russia.

To the north of Europe is the Arctic ocean, the dismal and solitary reservoir of myriads of miles of ice; yet this enormous waste is in the hand of Providence a fertile field of provisions for the human race. Here the vast battalions of herrings seem to seek a refuge from numerous foes, and to breed their millions in security. About the middle of winter emerging from their retreat they spread in three divisions; one towards the west, which covers the shores of America as far as the Chesapeake and Carolina, while another more minute squadron passes the strait between Asia and America, and visits the coasts of Kamtschatka. The most memorable, the central, division reaches Iceland about the beginning of March, in a close phalanx of surprising depth and such





extent that the surface is supposed to equal the dimensions of Great Britain and Ireland.

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS. The chief rivers and mountains will be described under the heads of the particular countries to which they belong.

GOVERNMENTS. The kingdoms and states of Europe may be considered, 1. As despotic monarchies, as those of Russia and Turkey: 2. Absolute monarchies, as Spain, Denmark, &c. or, 3. Limited monarchies, as the empire of Germany, kingdom of Great Britain, &c. Since the fall of Venice, and the subversion of Switzerland and Holland, scarcely an example occurs of permanent and fixed aristocracy, or the hereditary government of nobles. Of democracy, or more strictly speaking, elective aristocracy, a few cities and some Swiss cantons may preserve a semblance; while France at the present hour is a military despotism, under the assumed name of the *French Empire*, and the ferocious tyranny of a daring usurper.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the European states comprised in the first order are: 1. The united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland: 2. France: 3. Russia: 4. The Austrian dominions: 5. Those of Prussia: 6. Spain: 7. Turkey: which last cannot be so justly reduced to the second order; for though perhaps approaching its fall, still it boasts the name and weight of an empire.

Under the second order have been arranged: 1. Holland or the United Provinces now called the Batavian Republic: 2. Denmark: 3. Sweden: 4. Portugal: 5. Switzerland. In the third are considered the chief states of Germany, that labyrinth of geography, and those of Italy. The kingdoms of Sicily and Sardinia might perhaps, if entire and unshaken, aspire to the second order; and an equal station might be claimed by the junctive Electorate Palatine and Bavarian, and by that of Saxony. But as such states only form rather superior divisions of Germany and Italy, it appeared more advisable to consider them in their natural intimate connexion with these countries.

This explanation being premised, the first description shall be that of the British dominions.

ENGLAND.

CHAP. I.

NAMES, SITUATIONS, EXTENT, &c.

NAMES. THE Phenicians are generally supposed to have discovered Great Britain and Ireland at a period of very early antiquity; and some suppose that the name of Britain originates from a Phenician word, while others with more probability infer it to have been an indigenal term derived from the Brets, tribes of which appellation may be traced in Gaul and Scythia. Among the first objects of the Phenician intercourse was tin, whence the Greek name of Cassiterides or the islands of tin.

The name of Anglia or England is well known to have originated from the Angles, a nation of the Cimbric Chersonese or modern Jutland, who settled in the northern parts in the fifth century.

EXTENT. The island of Great Britain extends from fifty to fifty-eight and a half degrees of north latitude, being of course about 500 geographical miles in length. Its greatest breadth, from the Land's End to the North Foreland in Kent, 320 geographical miles.

England is bounded on the east by the German Ocean; on the south by the English Channel; on the west by St. George's Channel; on the north by the Cheviot Hills, by the pastoral river Tweed, and an ideal line falling southwest down to the Firth of Solway. The extent of England and Wales in square miles is computed at 49,450; and the population being estimated at 8,400,000, the number of inhabitants to a square mile will of course be 169.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The earliest inhabitants of England are supposed to have been the Gael or Southern Celts, called Guidels by the Welch, who regard them

as their predecessors. Those tribes seem to have arrived from the nearest shores of France and Flanders; and were followed by the Cimri, or Cimbri from the same regions whence the Angles afterwards proceeded. But the Cimbri were northern Celts, the ancestors of the modern Welch. The Scythians or Goths from Asia having seized on Germany and a great part of Gaul, gradually repelling the Celts towards the west, appear to have sent colonies into England three or four centuries before the Christian era; for Cæsar found many tribes of the Belgæ, a German or Gothic nation, established on the south and east of Britain. Those Belgæ may be justly regarded as the chief ancestors of the English nation; for the Saxons, Angles, and other northern invaders, though of distinguished courage were inconsiderable in numbers, and the English language bears more affinity to the Frisic and Dutch than to the Jutlandic or Danish.

Under the dominion of the Romans even the Belgic colonies, unaccustomed to the use of arms, had forgotten their former valour in the course of four centuries of subjection. Pressed by ferocious invaders, they seem to have invited to their assistance dangerous allies from the continent. The Jutes arrived in the year 449, and founded the kingdom of Kent about the year 460; they also took possession of the Isle of Wight. In 477 the Saxons first appear, and the kingdom of the South Saxons commences at that epoch. The West Saxons arrived in the year 495. The sixth century was considerably advanced when those barbaric colonies were increased by the East Saxons in the year 527; but the first appearance of the great branch of the Angles, who were to perpetuate their name in the country at large, did not occur till the year 547, when the valiant Ida led his troops to Bernicia. The East Angles taking possession of Norfolk in the year 575, the southern and eastern coasts were almost wholly in the power of the invaders, who soon extending their conquests into the interior of the country founded in the year 585 the kingdom of Mercia, the last of the Heptarchy.

England proper is divided into forty counties, and the principality of Wales into twelve, thus making the whole number of counties in South Britain fifty-two.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The principal epochs of the English history, are,

1. The population of England by the Celts.
2. The Belgic colonies, who introduced agriculture.
3. The Roman conquest. Britain was only seen by Julius Cæsar. The Roman conquest began in the reign of Claudius, and in that of Domitian the Roman Eagle had been displayed as far as the Grampian mountains.
4. The arrival of the Saxons and Angles in the fifth century.
5. The Danish conquest A. D. 1016. The Danish monarchs of England were Canute, Harold, and Hardicanute; but the sceptre returned to the Saxon line A. D. 1042.
6. The Norman conquest, A. D. 1066.
7. The great charter granted by John at Runymede.
8. Not to mention the conquest of Wales and the temporary subjugation of Scotland, the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster may be regarded as the next memorable epoch.
9. The Reformation introduced by Henry VIII. and Elizabeth.
10. The civil wars under Charles I.
11. The Revolution.
12. The war with the American colonies forms not only an epoch of singular novelty, but of the most important consequences.

ANTIQUITIES. Those of the first Celtic inhabitants were probably as usual among savage nations, constructed of wood, and of course there can be no remains. Some rude barrows and heaps of stones may perhaps belong to the Druidic tribes, but Stonehenge, the large barrows or tumuli, &c. more properly belong to the Belgic colonies. Stonehenge is situated near the capital of the ancient Belgæ, and there is a similar monument, but said to be of far greater extent, near Vannes, a town on the French coast which was possessed by the Belgæ. At Stonehenge there appear to be three principal circles of stones, the outer connected together by an uniform pavement as it were at the top, to which the chiefs might ascend and speak to the surrounding crowd. A second cir-

cle consists of detached upright stones about five feet in height, while the highest are eighteen. Within this is a grand oval, originally consisting of five trilithons of two huge stones crossed by another at the top and inclosing smaller stones, which seem to have been seats, and a large flat stone commonly called the altar, but which seems to have been the throne or seat of judgment. There is besides a very high stone towards the north-east or rising sun, and near this a large flat stone encompassed with a mound, which is probably the real altar on which human victims were sometimes sacrificed. There are also two other stones at a considerable distance to the E. and W. and the whole seems to be in the midst of a very extensive circle, marked by an eastern embankment almost effaced by the lapse of years, and affording sufficient space for all the males of the tribe or nation. These rude structures were probably erected for the purpose of judiciary proceedings, as well as the immolation of human sacrifices.

The Roman antiquities of England have been repeatedly illustrated. The greatest number of Roman inscriptions, altars, &c. has been found in the north, along the great frontier wall, which extended from the western Sea, to the estuary of Tyne. The Roman roads were also striking monuments of their power.

The Saxon antiquities in England are chiefly edifices, sacred or secular; many churches remain, which were altogether, or, for the most part, constructed in the Saxon period, and some are extant of the tenth, or, perhaps, the ninth century. The vaults erected by Grimbold, at Oxford, in the reign of Alfred, are justly esteemed curious relics of Saxon architecture. The oldest castles seem to consist of one solitary tower, square, or hexagonal: one of the rudest specimens, is Coningsburg Castle, in Yorkshire: but, as that region was subject to the Danes, till the middle of the tenth century, it is probably Danish.

The Danish power in England, though of considerable duration in the north, was in the south, brief and transitory. The camps of that nation were circular, like those of the Belgae and Saxons, while those of Ro-

man armies are known by the square form: and it is believed that the only distinct relics of the Danes are some castles to the north of the Humber, and a few stones with Runic inscriptions.

The monuments styled Norman, commenced after the conquest, and extended to the fourteenth century; when what is called the rich Gothic began to appear, which in the sixteenth century was supplanted by the mixed; and this in its turn yielded to the Grecian. In general the Norman style far exceeds the Saxon in the size of the edifices and the decoration of the parts. The churches become more extensive and lofty, and the windows larger, and more diversified. Uncouth animals begin to yield to leaves and flowers. This improvement is visible in King's College, Cambridge, and many other grand specimens in the kingdom.

RELIGION. Christianity was planted very early in this Island, perhaps by St. Paul, or some of his immediate disciples; for it is certain that in the year 150, the professors of our holy faith were numerous.—By degrees, the papal authority, and the corruptions of the church of Rome spread themselves here, as well as in all the other nations of Europe. Jno. Wickliffe, (an Englishman) in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who had firmness enough publicly to expose the corruptions of the Romish church. After passing through a flood of persecution, the nation at length shook off entirely the shackles of papal domination, and established a religious system, and an ecclesiastical government for itself.—The present constitution of the Church of England is *Episcopal*; and it is governed by bishops, every one of whom has a seat and vote in the house of peers, as all their benefices were converted into temporal baronies by the Norman conqueror. Ever since the time of Henry VIII. the sovereigns of England are heads of the church; but this is very little more than nominal, as the kings never intermeddle in the affairs of the church.

The Church of England is now, beyond any other national established church, tolerant in its principles. No religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that

manner which their consciences approve.—Of course religious sects have multiplied here beyond the example of any other country in Europe. But it would certainly be wise policy in the government to provide for the support of the Episcopal clergy, by some other means than by tythes and church rates collected by distraint from dissenters; as they are the source of more just and general discontent in the nation, than any other law or custom. Although the great bulk of the inhabitants is Protestant: still there are many families in England who profess the Roman Catholic religion, and exercise it under very mild and gentle restrictions. None perhaps are more peaceable and loyal subjects.

GOVERNMENT. The government is a *limited monarchy*, counterpoised by two senates, one of hereditary peers, the other of representatives, who are, or ought to be, chosen by the people, though I am far from recommending *universal* suffrage; which would be the greatest scourge that could befall that nation.

The acknowledged prerogatives of the monarch are chiefly to declare war and make peace; to form alliances and treaties; to grant commission for levying men and arms, and even for pressing mariners. To the king also belong all magazines, ammunition, castles, forts, ports, havens, and ships of war; he has also the special management of the coinage, and determines the alloy, weight, and value. The prerogative likewise extends to the assembling, adjournment, prorogation, and dissolution of parliament, and to its removal to any place. The sovereign also enjoys the nomination of all officers on sea or land; of all magistrates, counsellors, and officers of state; of all bishops, and other great ecclesiastical dignitaries; and is not only the fountain of honour, but of justice, as he may pardon any offence, or mitigate the penalty. But he cannot enact new laws, or impose new taxes, without the consent of both houses of parliament.

This grand national council claims the next consideration. Originally both the Nobles and the Commons met in one house, and the division into two houses, a legislative check unknown in any other country, may be regarded as the sole foundation of English liberty. - The

House of Peers may be said to have existed from the earliest period of the English history, but concerning the origin of the Commons there is a dispute between the tory and whig writers. The present constitution of the parliament of England, may, however, be traced with certainty, to near the middle of the thirteenth century. The peers are hereditary senators in their several degrees, of duke, marquis, earl, viscount and baron. When summoned to parliament, every peer, in his lawful absence, may constitute a *proxy* to vote for him, which no member of the House of Commons may do.

The House of Commons consists of knights, citizens, and burgesses, chosen by counties, cities, and burghs, in consequence of royal writs directed to the sheriffs. The members have certain privileges, as exemption from arrest in civil causes, on their journey to parliament, during their attendance, and on their return; nor can they be questioned out of the House for any sentiment there uttered. The Commons form the grand inquest of the realm, and may impeach or accuse the greatest peers; but their chief privilege, and upon which their whole power depends, is the levying of money, in which they are deservedly so jealous, that they will not permit the smallest alteration in a money bill. Since the union with Ireland, the House of Commons consist of six hundred and fifty-eight members. A speaker or president is chosen at the meeting of every new parliament.

Acts of parliament are first presented in the form of *bills*, and, after having gone through various and exact forms, generally observed with great minuteness, become law on receiving the sanction of the crown. Adjournments may happen in one session; but a prorogation terminates the session.

Such are the three grand component parts of the English constitution; but perhaps its most beneficial and popular effects arise from the mode of administering justice, and other ramifications.

The *Privy Council* formerly possessed great power but at present is chiefly employed in deliberations on affairs of sudden emergency, on peace and war, and special provinces of the royal prerogative.

In later times since the management of the House of Commons became the chief object of the crown, the Chancellor of the Court of Exchequer, as superintendant of the public revenue, is the officer generally considered as prime minister. The distribution of fifty millions a year, joined with the royal support, has recently carried his power to the highest elevation.

JUDICATURE AND LAWS. The judicature of England is worthy of the highest applause with regard to precision and purity; and bribes, so frequent in other countries, being totally unknown, the saving of this expence must be candidly poised against other legal disbursements. The trial by jury is another glorious feature of English jurisprudence, handed down from the Saxon times, and is justly respected as the very safeguard of the lives, liberties, and properties of the nation.

The forest laws relate chiefly to offences committed in or near the precincts of the royal forests. *Martial law* may be proclaimed by the king, regent, or lieutenant general of the kingdom; and even in time of peace, though the prerogative be rarely employed except during war. It is in fact a dictatorial power never exerted except on great emergencies. The trials are summary and severe as the necessity of the case authorises.

Among the courts of law the next in dignity to the House of Lords is the *Court of King's Bench* so called, because the sovereign was understood to judge in person. The Court of Chancery judges causes in equity to moderate the rigour of the law, and defend the helpless from oppression. The Court of *Common Pleas* determines as the name imports, the common suits between subject and subject, and tries all civil causes, real, personal, or mingled, according to the precise precepts of the law. The Court of *Exchequer*, so termed from the ancient mode of accounting upon a chequered board, decides all causes relating to the royal treasury or revenue.

The judges perform their circuits in the spring and autumn, and in the mean while more minute cases are determined by the justices of the peace, who may be traced to the fourth year of Edward III. Every three months the justices of the county meet at what is called the quarter sessions, and the grand inquest or jury of the

county is here summoned, which inquires concerning crimes, and orders the guilty to jail till the next circuit or assizes.

Such are the chief magistrates and officers in the country. Cities and towns are generally ruled by a mayor and aldermen, or by similar magistrates under different appellations, whose judicial power little exceeds that of justices of the peace.

POPULATION. The population of England and Wales by the late enumeration amounts to nine millions three hundred and forty-three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight, containing 4,715,711 males, 4,627,867 females, 1,896,723 families, and 1,575,923, inhabited houses. That of Ireland is generally computed at three millions, while that of Scotland has been lately found to equal one million six hundred and seven thousand seven hundred and sixty. The various colonies in America, &c. will not perhaps be found to amount to one million; but the American states boast a British progeny of six millions, and the English language is probably diffused to the extent of twenty millions of people.

ARMY. The army during the late war was supposed to exceed 170,000 with 30,000 fencibles, and 78,000 militia, the volunteers being supposed to be 60,000.

NAVY. But the great rampart and supreme glory of Great Britain consist in her navy, in size, strength, and number of ships, far exceeding any examples on record.

There are 195 ships of the line, 27 fifties, 251 frigates, and 314 sloops.—Total 787. For this immense fleet the number of seamen amounts to between one hundred and one hundred and twenty thousand.

REVENUE. The excise forms one of the most productive branches of the revenue, amounting to between seven and eight millions. Next stand the customs, which produce about half that sum. The stamps and incidental taxes, as they are termed, arise to near three millions. The land tax has recently been rendered perpetual, and sold to proprietors of estates and other individuals. But instead of the land tax, now appear those on sugar, tobacco, and malt, amounting to two millions seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds; the other supplies arise from the East India Company, lotteries, &c. In the year 1799,

it was supposed that the additional sums raised by loans, and other methods, swelled the national expenditure to near sixty millions sterling.

Of the permanent taxes the greater part is employed in discharging the interest of the national debt, which after the American war amounted to more than 239 millions, while the interest exceeded 9,000,000. At present the national debt is about 480,000,000, and the interest about 19,000,000.

To alleviate this growing burthen, a sinking fund was instituted in 1786, by which between 20 and 30 millions may be considered as already redeemed.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. With such a prodigious command of national treasure, the political importance and relations of Great Britain may be said to be diffused over the world; for wherever money influences man, there may her power be perceived. She can afford the most effectual aid to her allies, or inflict the greatest injury on her enemies, by means of her navy, and her pecuniary resources, of any power in Europe.—Her principal commercial relation is with the *United States* of America; and the interest of the two countries is connected by so many strong ties, that nothing but extreme folly can interrupt their harmony and mutual good offices. Closely united, they might not only secure their own peace, but promote the tranquillity of Europe.—Russia, the Germanic Empire, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Portugal are all interested in preserving a good understanding with Britain, as she is in cultivating their friendship and commerce.—Her principal, and most formidable enemy is France, against which she cannot exercise too much vigilance,—not only as her own implacable foe, but as the enemy of all the nations of Europe that refuse to submit to her dictation, and to co-operate with her in annihilating the British empire.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The English, generally speaking, are a plain, honest, humane, and brave people. In manufactures they are ingenious, and excel all other nations. In navigation and trade, they are bold, enterprising and liberal. Among foreigners they are accused of a cold restraint in their manners, but this perhaps will

be found to exist, more in appearance than reality, on a closer acquaintance.

The simplicity of the English cookery strikes foreigners as much as that of the dress, which even among the great is very plain, except on the days of court gala.

The houses in England are peculiarly commodious, neat, and cleanly ; and domestic architecture seems here arrived at its greatest perfection.

The amusements of the theatre and of the field, and various games of skill or chance, are common to most nations. Boxing and prize fighting, the beating of bulls, and bears is, it is believed, nearly discontinued: one of the most peculiar amusements of the common people is, the ringing of long peals, with many changes, which deafen those who are so unhappy as to live in the neighbourhood of the church.

LANGUAGE. From the situation of the country, and other causes, the English language participates of two grand sources of origination ; and unites in some degree the force of the Gothic with the melody of the Latin dialects. The ancient ground, and native expression originate from the Gothic divisions of the Belgic, Saxon, and Danish ; but particularly from the Belgic, as will appear from comparison with the Dutch and Frisic. The languages of Latin origin have, however supplied a vast wealth of words, sometimes necessary, sometimes only adopted because they are more sonorous, though not so emphatic as the original Gothic.

The construction of the English language is peculiar, and renders the study of it very difficult to foreigners. The German and other Gothic dialects present declensions of nouns, and other correspondencies with the Latin, while in English all such objects are accomplished by prefixes. Anomalies also abound, and are too deep rooted to be easily eradicated.

LITERATURE. The grand feature of English literature is original genius, from Roger Bacon to Shakespeare, Milton, Newton and Locke. The reign of Queen Anne has generally been accounted the Augustan age in England. To the names aforementioned there were added in that reign those of Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other eminent

writers. But perhaps superior abilities to those which distinguish the reign of the present king, in almost every department of literature and arts, and a more general and liberal patronage of intellectual labour, were never known in any age or nation of the world.

ARTS. The present state of the arts in England is worthy of so opulent and refined a country, and the progress has been rapid beyond example. Until the beginning of the eighteenth century England was obliged to import her chief painters from abroad. But the patronage and exertions of the reign of George III. have not only been crowned with a great perfection of the arts, but has been exuberant in the production of artists of deserved reputation. In painting, engraving, architecture and sculpture, England can boast native names, not inferior to the most celebrated in Europe.

SCHOOLS. The education of the lower classes in England has been too much neglected, before the institution of Sunday schools. The middle and higher ranks of English spare no expence in the education of their sons, by private tutors at home, or at what are called day schools and boarding schools. The most eminent public schools are, those of St. Paul's, Westminster, Eaton, and Winchester ; and from them have risen some of the most distinguished ornaments of their country. The scholars in due time proceed to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge ; foundations of an extent and grandeur that impress veneration. In Oxford there are 17 different colleges, and 16 in Cambridge, besides several halls, or smaller colleges. Of the two, Oxford is the more majestic, from the grandeur of the colleges and other public buildings, and the superior neatness of the streets ; but the chapel of the King's college at Cambridge is supposed to excel any single edifice of the other university.

CITIES AND TOWNS. In giving an account of the cities and towns in England, our plan will admit of only a brief sketch of a few, that are most noted for their dignity, wealth and population.

LONDON, the metropolis of England, is situated in an extensive plain or valley watered by the Thames, and only confined on the north by a few small elevations. It now includes Southwark, a borough on the other side of the

Thames, and Westminster, another city on the west. The noble river Thames is here about 440 yards in breadth, crowned with three bridges, crowded with a forest of masts, and conveying into London the wealth of the globe, forming an excellent port, without the danger of exposure to a maritime enemy. London presents almost every variety which diversifies human existence. Upon the east it is a sea port, replete with mariners, and with the trades connected with that profession. In the centre, it is the seat of numerous manufactures and prodigious commerce; while the western or fashionable extremity presents royal and noble splendour, amidst scenes of the highest luxury and most ruinous dissipation.

Few cities can boast a more salubrious situation, the subjacent soil being pure gravel; by which advantage, united with extensive sewers, the houses are generally dry, cleanly, and healthy. Provisions and fuel are poured into the capital, even from distant parts of the kingdom; the latter article being coals, from the counties of Northumberland and Durham, transferred by sea, and thence denominated sea-coal. London requires in one year 101,075 beeves, 707,456 sheep, with calves and pigs in proportion: the vegetables and fruits annually consumed, are valued at a million sterling.

The population of London has by some been exaggerated to a million of souls; but by the late enumeration, it does not contain above 885,577. Its length from Hyde-park corner on the west to Poplar on the east, is about six miles; the breadth unequal, from three miles to one and less; the circumference may be about sixteen miles. The houses are almost universally of brick, and disposed with insipid similarity; but the streets are excellently paved, and have convenient paths for foot passengers. Another national feature, which is the most conspicuous in the metropolis, is the abundance of charitable foundations; the multitude and rich display of shops, the torrent of population constantly rolling through the streets; the swarm of carriages; and the blaze of nocturnal illuminations which extend even to four or five miles of the environs. The churches and chapels exceed 200 in number. There are three noble bridges across the Thames within the limits of the Bills of mortality. There are 4050

seminaries of education; between 13 and 14 thousand vessels (besides river craft) arriving and departing; which carry between 60 and 70 millions sterling, annually, to and from this great metropolis.

YORK. Next to the capital in dignity, though not in extent nor opulence is York: which is not only the chief of a large and fertile province, but may be regarded as the metropolis of the North of England. The name has been gradually corrupted from the ancient Eboracum; by which denomination it was remarkable even in the Roman times, for the temporary residence and death of the Roman Emperor Severus. This venerable city is divided by the river Ouse; and the Gothic cathedral is of celebrated beauty, the western front being peculiarly rich, the chief tower very lofty, and the windows of the finest painted glass. York divides with Edinburgh the winter visits of the northern gentry. Its inhabitants, according to the late enumeration, amount to 16,145.

LIVERPOOL. But Liverpool, in Lancashire, is now much nearer to London in wealth and population. In 1699, Liverpool was admitted to the honour of being constituted a parish. In 1710, the first dock was constructed; and the chief merchants came originally from Ireland. Thenceforth the progress was rapid, and in 1760 the population was computed at 25,787 souls. In 1773, they amounted to 34,407; in 1787, to 56,670; and by the enumeration in 1801, they were found to have encreased to 77,653. Its increase has been equal to that of Philadelphia in the United States.

The number of ships which paid duty at Liverpool in 1757, was 1371; in 1794, they amounted to 4265. In the African trade, a distinguishing feature of Liverpool, there was only one ship employed in 1709; in 1792, they amounted to 132. In the recent act for the contribution of seamen to the royal navy, according to the ships registered in each, the estimate is as follows:

London,	5725	Hull,	731	Bristol,	666
Liverpool,	1711	Whitehaven,	700	Whitby,	573
Newcastle,	1240	Sunderland,	669	Yarmouth,	506

BRISTOL is still a large and flourishing city, though much of its commerce with the West Indies and America have passed to Liverpool. The trade with Ireland has centered chiefly in this city. It is pleasantly situated at the confluence of the Froome with the Avon. The hot-wells in the neighbourhood appear to have been known in 1480: but the water was chiefly used externally, till about the year 1670; when a baker dreaming that his diabetes was relieved by drinking the water, he tried the experiment and recovered. Since that period its reputation has increased, and many commodious and elegant erections have contributed to recommend these wells to invalids. In 1787, Bristol employed about 1600 coasting vessels, and 416 ships engaged in foreign commerce. Its population in 1801 was 63,645.

MANCHESTER, celebrated for its extensive cotton manufacture, and the machinery of Arkwright, in 1708 contained but 8000 inhabitants. At the present time they amounted to 84,020.

BIRMINGHAM was originally a village belonging to a family of the same name. It is now famous for its various and extensive manufactures of hardware, and fancy articles of every kind. Between 1741 and 1790, Birmingham has experienced an augmentation of 72 streets, 4172 houses, and 23,320 inhabitants: the population in 1801, amounted to 73,670.

SHEFFIELD, though distinguished as early as the thirteenth century for its manufacture of cutlery, had not risen to any degree of celebrity till about the middle of last century. At that period, all its manufactures were conveyed weekly to the metropolis, on pack horses. In 1615, the population did not exceed 2152 persons, at present it is equal to 31,314.—There are many other towns in England of considerable fame, but those already mentioned are the most distinguished for their extensive trade and manufactures, and the bounds of this epitome will not permit us to enlarge.

WALES, which is a part of South Britain, and gives a title to the Heir apparent, is a country that abounds with the sublime and beautiful features of nature, but does not contain many towns of considerable note or magnitude. Yet it may not be improper to take notice of Caernarvon,

esteemed the chief town of North Wales, and famous for the grandeur of its castle, one of the most magnificent in Europe. Here was born Edward II. surnamed of Caernarvon, who was immediately created Prince of Wales; his father having promised to the vanquished Welsh a prince born in their own country, and who could not speak a word of English.

EDIFICES. In a brief enumeration of the principal edifices in England, the royal palaces demand of course the first attention. *Windsor* castle, situated on an eminence near the Thames, has an appearance truly grand, and worthy of the days of chivalry. The view extends as far as the cathedral of St. Paul's; and the whole scene strongly impresses the circumstances so vividly delineated in Gray's pathetic Ode on Eaton College. This palace contains many noble paintings, particularly the cartoons of Raphael. *Hampton-Court* is in a low situation, ornamented with aqueducts from the river Colne. This palace is also replete with interesting pictures. The royal gardens of *Kew* are truly worthy of a great and scientific prince; the ground, though level, is diversified with much art; and the collection of plants from all the regions of the known world, fills the admirer of nature with delight and surprise. They are so disposed, that every plant finds, as it were, its native soil and climate; even those that grow on rocks and lava having artificial substitutes.

The royal palace at *Greenwich* has been long abandoned, but the observatory still does credit to science. It is a plain edifice well adapted to astronomical observations, and at present is superintended by Dr. Maskelyne. Dr. Herschell's observatory, instead of containing his telescope, is suspended from it in the open air, at Slough, near Windsor, where he is continually extending the bounds of astronomical knowledge.

Among the houses of the nobility and gentry, or palaces, as they would be termed on the continent, the first fame, perhaps, belongs to Stowe, the seat of the Marquis of Buckingham; which, for its enchanting gardens, has been long celebrated. When Mr. Beckford's magnificent erections at Fonthill are completed, that fame will be far surpassed. Our intention, however, will be better ac-

complished by a brief enumeration of some of the most celebrated country seats.

Hagley, the seat of Lord Littleton: the Leasowes of the late Mr. Shenstone; Penshurst, near Tunbridge, a famous seat of the Sidneys; Wanstead, of the Earl of Tilney; Blenheim of the Duke of Marlborough; the seat of the Earl Spenser, at Wimbleton; Wooburn Abbey, of the Duke of Bedford; Louth-hall of Lord Lonsdale; Chatsworth, of the Duke of Devonshire, and many other splendid edifices, equally honourable to the country, as to their opulent proprietors.

BRIDGES. The bridges are worthy the superiority of the English roads; and a surprising exertion in this department, is the recent construction of bridges in cast iron, an invention unknown to all other nations. The first example was that of Colebrook-dale, in Shropshire, erected over the Severn, in 1779. Another stupendous iron bridge was thrown over the harbour at Sunderland, about six years ago; the height of which is 100 feet, and the span of the arch 236. It is composed of detached pieces, any of which, if damaged, may be withdrawn, and replaced by others. When viewed from beneath, the elegance, lightness, and surprising height of the arch, excite admiration, and the carriages appear as if passing among the clouds.

INLAND NAVIGATION. The earliest inland navigation that can be authenticated, is the Sankey canal, began in 1755, leading from the coal-pits at St. Helens in Lancashire, to the river Mersey, and constructed in order to convey coals to Liverpool. The length of the canal is twelve miles, with a fall of ninety feet.

But the Duke of Bridgewater is justly venerated as the grand founder of inland navigation; his spirit and opulence were happily seconded by Brindley, than whom a greater natural genius in mechanics never existed. It was in the year 1758 that the first act was obtained for these great designs. The first canal extends from Worsley mill, about seven computed miles from Manchester, and reaches that town by a course of nine miles. In this short space almost every difficulty occurred that can arise in similar schemes. There are subterraneous passages to the coal in the mountain, of near a mile in length, with

air-funnels to the top of the hill, some of them thirty-seven yards perpendicular. This beautiful canal is brought over the river Irwell, by an arch of thirty-nine feet in height, and under which barges pass without lowering their masts. The Duke of Bridgewater soon afterwards extended a canal of twenty-nine miles in length, from Longford-bridge, in Lancashire, to Hempstones, in Cheshire.

After this deserved tribute to the father of inland navigation in England, it will be eligible to review the other canals in a geographical manner, proceeding from the north to the south.

First in order is the Lancaster canal, from Kendal to West Houghton, a space of about seventy-four miles.

The canal from Leeds to Liverpool, winds through an extent of 117 miles; and from this canal a branch also extends to Manchester.

From Halifax to Manchester is another considerable canal; length thirty-one miles and a half, begun in 1794.

Another from Manchester towards Wakefield; and another which stretches from the former, south-east, about fifteen miles.

Another joins the river Dun, several miles above Doncaster, to the river Chalder, near Wakefield.

To pass several of smaller note, the Chesterfield canal extends from Chesterfield to the Trent, at Stockwith, a course of forty-four miles and three quarters.

In Lincolnshire, one canal extends from Lincoln to the Trent, and another from Horncastle to Sleaford. Grantham canal reaches from that town to the river Trent, a course of thirty miles.

Liverpool is connected with Hull by a canal from that long navigable river the Trent, and proceeding north to the Mersey. The canal which joins these two rivers is styled the Grand Trunk; the length is 99 miles. It was attended with great difficulties, particularly in passing the river Dove, in Derbyshire, where there is an aqueduct of twenty-three arches, the tunnel through the hill of Harecastle, in Staffordshire, is in length 2880 yards, and more than 70 yards below the surface of the ground.

From the Grand Trunk five or six branches extend in various directions: among which must not be omitted that to the river Severn, near Bewdley, which connects the

port of Bristol with those of Liverpool and Hull; the length is 46 miles.

From the city of Chester one canal extends to the Mersey, and another to Namptwich: another proceeds south to Shrewsbury, uniting the Mersey and the Severn; with north-west, and south-east branches of considerable length.

From Coventry, in the centre of the kingdom, canals extend to the Grand Trunk; to Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and to the Braunston, or Grand Junction canal.

What is called the Staffordshire canal, extends from the Grand Trunk to the river Severn; and is met by the Kington canal, which reaches from Kington in Herefordshire, so as almost to join the rivers Trent and Wye.

Several inland navigations pass by Birmingham. The Union canal completes a course of forty-three miles and three-quarters, from Leicester to Northampton, whence the river Nen is navigable to the sea.

Another canal extends from Gloucester to Hereford: and the south of Wales presents several navigations of considerable length, particularly that from Brecon, in Brecknockshire, to Newport, in Monmouthshire.

The Severn is not only joined with the Trent and the Humber, by various courses of navigation, but is united with the Thames, by a canal extending by Stroud to Lechlade, a course of near forty miles.

Other canals from the Thames branch in various directions; that of Oxford joins the Coventry canal, after a course of 92 miles. The Grand Junction canal reaches from Brentford, on the Thames, and joins the Oxford canal at Braunston, after a course of 90 miles. On the south of the Thames, a canal proceeds from Reading to Bath; another from Weybridge to Basingstoke; and a third from Weybridge to Godalming. There are some other smaller canals which we have not room to detail.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The earliest staple commodity of England was tin, a metal rarely found in other countries. The Phœnicians first introduced it into commerce, at least five or six hundred years before the Christian æra; and their extensive trade soon diffused it among the Oriental nations. The Romans upon their conquest of these regions did not neglect this source of wealth. Yet even in the reign of John, the product was

so inconsiderable, that the mines were farmed to Jews for 100 marks; but in that of Henry III. they began again to yield a large profit, which has since gradually increased to a great amount.

Wool had been regarded as a grand staple of England, as early as the twelfth century, but was chiefly exported in a crude state, till Edward III. encouraged settlements of Flemish manufacturers. Wool soon became the standard of private property, and the prime article of commerce. Taxes and foreign subsidies were estimated by sacks of this commodity. Great quantities of raw wool continued to be exported to the Netherlands and Hanse Towns; but in the reign of Elizabeth it began to be chiefly manufactured at home, and the exportation of woollen cloths was then valued at a million and a half annually. The exportation of raw wool was at length prohibited; and the woollen manufactures preserve great importance, though they no longer attract such particular regard, amidst the exuberance of English manufactures.

In recent times the manufactures of iron and copper, native minerals, have become great sources of national wealth; nor must the new and extensive exportation of elegant earthen-ware be forgotten. The cotton manufacture is diffused far and wide, forming a grand source of industry and prosperity. That of linen, except of sail-cloth, is not much cultivated in England. The manufactures of glass and fine steel, clocks, watches, &c. are deservedly eminent and extensive. As the nation is indebted to Wedgewood for converting clay into gold, so to Boydell for another elegant branch of exportation, that of beautiful prints.

The English manufactures have been recently estimated at the annual value of 63,600,000*l.* and supposed to employ 1,585,000 persons. Of these, the woollen manufacture is supposed to yield in round sums, 15,000,000*l.* the leather 10,000,000*l.* the iron, tin, and lead 10,000,000*l.* the cotton 9,000,000*l.* The other chief manufactures, which yield from 1 to 4,000,000*l.* may be thus arranged, according to their consequence; steel, plating, &c. copper, and brass, silk, potteries, linen and flax, hemp, glass, paper.

The commerce of England is, at the present period, enormous, and may be said to extend to every region of the globe. The trade with the West Indies is one of the most important, and that with the East Indies alone, would have astonished any of the celebrated trading cities of antiquity.

From the states of North America, are chiefly imported tobacco, rice, indigo, timber, hemp, flax, iron, pitch, tar, and lumber: From the West Indies, sugar, rum, cotton, coffee, ginger, peppêr, guaiacum, sarsaparilla, man-cineal, mahogany, gums, &c. From Africa, gold dust, ivory, gums, &c. From the East Indies and China, tea, rice, spices, drugs, colours, silk, cotton, salt-petre, shawls, and other products of the loom. From the British settlements in North America, are imported furs, timber, pot-ash, iron; and from the various states of Europe, numerous articles of utility and luxury.

The annual income of Great Britain was estimated in 1799, by Mr. Pitt, at 102,000,000*l.*; and including the money, of which the estimate is far from certain, the whole capital of Great Britain may perhaps be calculated at more than one thousand two hundred millions.

In the year 1797, the amount of the exports, according to Custom-house accounts, was 28,917,000*l.*, and of the imports, 21,013,000*l.*, yielding, as is supposed, clear profits on foreign trade, to the amount of at least 10,000,000*l.* The number of merchant vessels amounts probably to 16,000; it is calculated that 140,000 men and boys are employed in the navigation.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Great Britain is very variable, the vapours of the Atlantic Ocean being opposed to the drying winds from the eastern continent. The western coasts in particular are subject to frequent rains; and the eastern part of Scotland is of a clearer and dryer temperature than that of England.

In consequence of the mutability of the climate, the seasons themselves are of uncertain tenour, and the year might properly be divided into eight months of winter, and four of summer. What is called the spring dawns in April; but the eastern winds prevalent in May, seem commissioned to ruin the efforts of reviving nature, and destroy the promise of the year. June, July, August, and

September, are usually warm summer months ; but a night of frost is not unknown, even in August, and sometimes a cold east wind will blow for three days together ; nor of late years are summers unknown of almost constant rain. The winter may be said to commence with the beginning of October, at which time domestic fires become necessary ; but there is seldom any severe frost till Christmas, and January is the most stern month of the year. Yet as the summers often produce specimens of winter, so now and then gleams of warm sunshine illuminate the darker months. March is generally the most unsettled month of the year, interspersed with dry frost, cold rains, and strong winds, with storms of hail and sleet.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil is greatly diversified, but in general fertile ; and in no country is agriculture more thoroughly understood, or pursued in a grander style, except, perhaps in Flanders and Lombardy. I mean before these countries were visited with the scourge of French fraternity. The nobility and gentry, mostly residing upon their estates in summer, often retain considerable farms in their own hands, and practise and encourage every agricultural improvement.

The cultivated acres of England and Wales are computed at upwards of 39,000,000 ; the uncultivated about 8,000,000. Of the latter about half a million is supposed to be unimproveable.—Gardening is also pursued in England with great assiduity and success. From the high prices given in the capital for early produce, each acre thus employed, in its vicinity, is supposed to yield about 120*l.* annually. England is deservedly considered as the standard of ornamental gardening, just to the beauties of nature, and free from the uncouth affectations of art.

RIVERS. England is intersected by four important rivers, the Severn, the Thames, the Humber, and the Mersey ; besides a considerable number of minor streams. None of the largest extend much above 150 miles into the country.—In general it may be observed of the British rivers, that the length of their course is inconsiderable, when compared with that of the Continental streams. The length of the Thames compared with that of the Danube, is only as 1 to 7, and with that of the Nile, as 1 to 12.

The Kian Ku of China, and the river of Amazons, in South America, extend through a progress of more than fifteen times the length of that of the Thames. The rivers of the southern and middle parts of England, present a striking contrast to those of the north ; the former pursuing a slow and inert course over mud, between level banks, amid rich and extensive meadows ; while the latter roll their clear torrents over beds of gravel, between elevated banks, and rocky precipices ; and even when verdant levels occur, the stream still retains its banks and beds of gravel.

MOUNTAINS. While Bennevis, the highest mountain in Scotland, is not much above one quarter of the height of Mont Blanc, the sovereign of the Alps, the English and Welsh summits aspire to heights still less considerable ; Snowdon being only 3568 English feet above the sea, while Bennevis is 4387, or, by other accounts, 4350. Wharn, or Wharnside, in Yorkshire, was estimated at 4050. Ingleborough at 5280 feet. A late accurate measurement has, however reduced this latter to 2380 feet, and probably Wharnside ought also to be diminished in the same proportion.

In the northern and western mountains and hills, chalk is unknown, while it forms a chief material of those in the south and east. The northern are mostly composed of limestone, free-stone, and slate, with mines of lead or coal. Those of Derbyshire present vast masses of lime-stone. Those on the west, or Mendip hills, in Somersetshire, are wholly calcareous. The Granite begins at Dartmoor, in Devonshire, and runs through Cornwall, where it presents a variety of colours.—The mountains in Wales abound in slate, horn-stone, and porphyry, with large masses of quartz.

METALS AND MINERALS. Among the British minerals are the tin mines of Cornwall already mentioned. They are said to employ 100,000 persons. Gold has been discovered in various parts of England, but the metal has never re-paid the labour and expence. The mines of rock salt must not be omitted : those of Norwich are the most remarkable, the annual produce of which has been estimated at 65,000 tons. But the most valuable mines of England are those of coal, found in the central,

northern, and western parts, but particularly in the northern, around New-Castle : 600,000 chaldrons are sent annually to London, and 1500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that harbour along the eastern coast of England. —Cornwall also produces copper, so does Yorkshire and Staffordshire, but this metal is found in the greatest abundance in the north-western parts of Anglesea. Lead is found in Derbyshire, Somersetshire, and on the verge of Cumberland. The mines at the latter place alone employ about 1100 men.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Although among the numerous species of vegetables which are the *natives* of Britain, there are scarcely any that are adequate to the sustenance and clothing of man ; yet the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, and oats produced are so great, that in some years large quantities are exported. In nothing, however, have the English been so successful in cultivating, and meliorating, as the various grasses. Their climate is peculiarly adapted to grasses of every kind. They reckon no fewer than 27 genera, and 110 species of grass, that are natives of the island. They have a plenty of excellent fruits : apples, pears, plumbs, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions grow here. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire has been preferred to French wine. Their kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and salads in perfection.—

Mr. Pennant, in his *British Zoology*, has treated that subject at due extent, and with his usual ability. Of animals, that celebrated author enumerates twenty genera, from the horse down to the seal and bat. The birds extend to forty-eight, the reptiles to four, and the fish to forty genera, besides the crustaceous and shell fish.

That noble and useful animal, the horse, is found in England of many mingled breeds, while most other kingdoms produce only one kind. Their race-horses descend from Arabian stallions, and the genealogy faintly extends to their hunters, The great strength and size of the English draught-horses are derived from those of Germany, Flanders, and Holstein ; and other breeds have been so intermingled, that native horses may be found adapted to

every purpose of pomp, pleasure, or utility. Those of Yorkshire are particularly celebrated for their spirit and beauty ; and the grooms of that country are equally noted for their skill in the management of this valuable animal.

The indigenous horned cattle are now only known to exist in Neidwood-forest, in Staffordshire, and at Chillingham-castle, in Northumberland. They are long-legged and wild like deer, of a pure white colour, with black muzzles, ears, and tails, and a stripe of the same hue along the back. The domesticated breeds of their cattle are almost as various as those of their horses ; those of Wales and Cornwall are small, while the Lincolnshire kind derive their great size from those of Holstein. In the North of England we find kylies, so called from the district of Kyle, in Scotland ; in the South we find the elegant breed of Guernsey, generally of a light brown colour, and small size, but remarkable for the richness of their milk.

The number and value of sheep in England may be judged from the ancient staple commodity of wool. Of this most useful animal several breeds appear, generally denominated from their particular counties or districts : those of Herefordshire, Devonshire, and Cotswold-downs, are noted for fine fleeces, while the Lincolnshire and Warwickshire kind are remarkable for the quantity. The Teesdale breed of the county of Durham, though lately neglected, continue to deserve their fame. The wool is beautiful, but the length of their legs lessens their value in the eyes of the butcher. The mutton of Wales, on the contrary, is esteemed, while the wool is coarse, yet employed in many useful and salutary manufactures.

The goat, an inhabitant of the rocks, has, even in Wales, for the most part yielded to the more useful sheep ; that country being, like Scotland, more adapted to the woollen manufacture. The breeds of swine are various and useful.

England also abounds in breeds of dogs, some of which were celebrated even in Roman times ; nor have their modern descendants, the mastiff and bull-dog, degenerated from the spirit and courage of their ancestors.

Of their savage animals the most fierce and destructive is the wild cat, which is three or four times as large as the domestic, with a flat broad face, colour yellowish white,

mixed with deep grey, in streaks running from a black list on the back ; hips always black, tail alternate bars of black and white ; only found in the most mountainous and woody parts. The wolf has been long extinct, but the fox abounds.

The chief of their birds of prey are, the golden eagle, sometimes found on Snowdon : the black eagle has appeared in Derbyshire ; the osprey, or sea eagle, seems extinct in England. The peregrine falcon breeds in Wales ; and many kinds of hawks in England. An enumeration of the other birds would be superfluous. The nightingale, one of the most celebrated, is not found in North Wales, nor any where to the North, except about Doncaster, where it abounds ; nor does it travel so far west as Devonshire and Cornwall. Their poultry seem to originate from Asia ; peacocks from India, pheasants from Colchis ; the guinea-fowl are from Africa. Their smallest bird is the golden-crested wren, which sports on the highest pine-trees ; and largest the bustard, some of which weigh twenty-five pounds, and are found in the open countries of the south and east.

The reptiles are frogs, toads, several kinds of lizards : of their serpents the viper alone is venomous ; other kinds are the snake, sometimes found four feet in length ; and the blind worm, seldom exceeding eleven inches.

Of fish, the whale but seldom appears near the English coasts, the porpoise, and others of the same genus are not uncommon. The basking shark appears off the shores of Wales. Numerous are the edible sea-fish. Some of the most celebrated are the turbot, dorce, soal, cod, plaice, smelt, and mullet. The consumption of herrings and mackerel extends to most parts of the kingdom : but pilchards are confined to the Cornish coasts. The chief river fish are the salmon and the trout, which are brought from the northern parts in prodigious numbers, generally packed in ice. It is said that not less than 30,000 salmon are brought from one river, the Tweed, to London, in the course of a season. The lamprey is chiefly found in the Severn, the charr in the lakes of Westmoreland. The lobster is found on most of the rocky coasts, particularly off Scarborough ; and the English oysters preserve their Roman reputation.

ENGLISH ISLES. In the southern or English channel first appears the Isle of Wight, by the Romans called *Vectis*; about 20 miles in length and 12 in breadth. The principal town is Newport—and one of the most remarkable buildings is Carisbrook-castle, where Charles I. was imprisoned by his rebellious subjects.

At the distance of about 70 miles from Wight arises the little island of Alderney, off Cape la Hogue; which is followed by the more important islands of Guernsey and Jersey, Sark being a small island interposed between the two latter. Guernsey, the largest of these isles, is about 36 miles in circuit.

Returning to the English shore, we first descry Eddystone light house, beat by all the fury of the western waves. This edifice has repeatedly been overthrown, but the present erection by Mr. Smeaton, composed of vast masses of stone, grooved into the rock, and joined with iron, promises alike to defy accidental fire, and the violence of the ocean, though the waves sometimes wash over the very summit in one sheet of foam.

About 30 miles west of the land's end appears a cluster of small islands, 145 in number, called the islands of Scilly. The largest (St. Mary's) is about five miles in circuit, and has about 600 inhabitants.—On the coast of Wales is the island of Anglesea, being the *Mona* of Tacitus; about 25 miles in length and 18 in breadth; is fertile and populous, and enjoys a considerable trade with Ireland.

The last English island worth mentioning is that of Man,—it is about 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. The sovereignty formerly belonged to the Earls of Derby, but is now annexed to the English crown.

SCOTLAND.

SCOTLAND was first discovered to the Romans by Agricola, and was distinguished from South-Britain by the special appellation of Caledonia.

This name continued to be used till the Roman power expired. Bede, the father of English history, calls the inhabitants of the country by the name of Picti, which had also been used by the later Roman writers as synonymous with that of Caledonii.

These distinctions continued till the eleventh century, when the new name of Scotia was taken from Ireland, its former object, and applied to modern Scotland.

EXTENT. That part of Great Britain called Scotland, is about 260 miles in length, by about 160 at its greatest breadth; it extends from the 55th degree of latitude, to more than $58\frac{1}{2}$. The superficial contents have been computed at 27,793 square miles, a little exceeding that of Ireland, and considerably more than half that of England. The population being estimated at 1,600,000, there will, of course, be only 57 inhabitants for every square mile, a proportion of about one-third of that of Ireland. This defect of population arises solely from the mountainous nature of the country, amounting, perhaps, to one-half, little susceptible of cultivation.

DIVISIONS. The territory of Scotland is unequally divided into thirty-three counties: six of which may be called the Northern; fourteen, the Midland; and thirteen, the Southern division.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. So far as historical researches can discover, the original population of Scotland, consisted of Cimbri, from the Cimbric Chersonese. About two centuries before the Christian æra, the Cimbri seem to have been driven to the south of Scotland by the Caledonians, or Picti, a Gothic colony from Norway.

On the west, the Cumraig kingdom of Strath Clyde continued till the tenth century, when it became subject to the kings of North-Britain; who, at the time, extended their authority, by the permission of the English monarchs, over the counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland. From the Picti originates the population of the Lowlands of Scotland, the Lowlanders having been, in all ages, a distinct people from those of the western Highlands, though the Irish clergy endeavoured to render their language, which was the most smooth and cultivated of the two, the polite dialect of the court and superior classes. About the year of Christ 258, the Dalraids of Bede, the Attacotti of the Roman writers, passed from Ireland to Argyleshire, and became the germ of the Scottish Highlanders, who speak the Irish, or Celtic language, while the Lowlanders have always used the Scandinavian, or Gothic.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. 1. The original population of Scotland by the Cimbri, and by the Picti, forms the first historical epoch.

2. The entrance of Agricola into Scotland, and the subsequent conflicts with the Romans, till the latter abandoned Britain.

3. The settlement of the Dalraids, or Attacotti, in Argyleshire, about the year 258, and their repulsion to Ireland about the middle of the fifth century.

4. The commencement of what may be called a regular history of Scotland, from the reign of Drust, A. D. 414.

5. The return of the Dalraids, A. D. 503. and the subsequent events of Dalraidic story.

6. The introduction of Christianity among the Caledonians, in the reign of Brudi II. A. D. 565.

7. The union of the Picti and Attacotti, under Kenneth, A. D. 843.

8. The reign of Malcolm III. A. D. 1056 : from which period greater civilization began to take place, and the history becomes more authentic.

9. The extinction of the ancient line of kings, in the person of Margaret, of Norway, grand-daughter of Alexander III. A. D. 1290. This event occasioned the interposition of Edward I. king of England, which was the source of the enmity which afterwards unhappily prevailed between the kingdoms.

10. The accession of the house of Stuart to the Scottish throne.

11. The establishment of the Protestant religion, A. D. 1560.

12. The union of the two crowns, by the accession of James VI. to the English sceptre, A. D. 1603.

13. The civil wars, and the subsequent disputes between the Presbyterians and Independants; causes that extinguished all sound literature in Scotland, for the space of twenty years, A. D. 1640-1660.

14. The revolution of 1688, and the firm establishment of the Presbyterian system.

15. The union of the two kingdoms in 1707, which laid the first foundation of the subsequent prosperity in Scotland.

ANTIQUITIES. There are no monuments of antiquity, worth mentioning, of an earlier date than the arrival of the Romans. The remains of these conquerors appear in the celebrated wall, built in the reign of Antoninus Pius, between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, in the ruins of which many curious inscriptions have been found. Another striking object, is a small edifice, called Arthur's Oven, supposed to be a temple of the god Terminus. The most northerly Roman camp yet discovered is in Aberdeenshire, the periphery of which is about two English miles. Roman roads have been traced a considerable way, in the east of Scotland. The smaller remains of Roman antiquities, such as coins, utensils, &c. are numerous. The places of judgment, or what are called Druidic temples, are to be traced in many places. Those rude round piles of stone, constructed without any cement, called Pils Houses, deserve to be noticed. They seem to have consisted of a vast hall, open to the

sky in the centre, while the cavities in the wall present incommensurable recesses for beds, &c. These buildings are remarkable, as displaying the first elements of the Gothic castle.

RELIGION. Since the revolution, 1688, the Ecclesiastical government of Scotland is of the Presbyterian form. The number of parishes in Scotland is 941; contiguous parishes unite in what is called a Presbytery, of which denomination there are 69. The provincial synods amounting to fifteen, are composed of several adjacent Presbyteries; but the grand Ecclesiastical court is the general assembly, which meets every year, in the spring; the king appointing a commissioner to represent his person, while the members nominate their moderator, or president.

To this Ecclesiastical council laymen are also admitted, under the name of Ruling Elders, and constitute about one-third of this venerable body. This court discusses and judges all clerical affairs, and admits of no appeal, except to the parliament of Great Britain.

As whatever establishment is effected in a free country, opposition will always arise, the establishment of the Presbyterian system, was, in the space of one generation, followed by the secession, which took place in 1732. The seceders being the most rigid in their sentiments, and animated by persecution, soon formed a numerous party.

About the year 1747, they were themselves divided into two denominations, called the Burghers, and the Anti-burghers, because the division arose concerning the legality of the oaths taken by the burgesses of some of the royal boroughs; the former allowing that the oath is proper, while the latter object; the former are the more numerous, the number of their ministers being computed at about 100, and at a medium each has a congregation of about 1000.

Many respectable families in Scotland embrace the Episcopal form of the Church of England. The other descriptions of religious professions are not numerous. There are but few Roman Catholics, even in the remote Highlands, the scheme of education being excellent, and generally supported with liberality.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Scotland, since the union, has been blended with that of England. The most splendid remaining feature of government in Scotland, is the general assembly, already mentioned. Next to which may be classed the high courts of justice, especially that styled the session, consisting of a president, and fourteen senators. The lords of session, as they are styled in Scotland, upon their promotion to office, assume a title, generally from the name of an estate, by which they are known and addressed, as if peers by creation, while they are only constituted lords by superior interest, or talents. This court is the last resort in several causes, and the only appeal is to the parliament of Great Britain.

The judiciary court consists of five judges, who are likewise lords of session; but, with a president, styled lord justice clerk. This is the supreme court in criminal causes, which are determined by the majority of a jury, and not by the unanimity, as in England. There is also a court of exchequer, consisting of a Lord Chief Baron, and four Barons; and a high court of admiralty, in which there is only one judge.

LAWS. The law of Scotland differs essentially from that of England, being founded, in a great measure, upon the civil law. Of common law, there is hardly a trace, while the civil and canon laws may be said to form the two pillars of Scottish judicature. The modes of procedure have, however, the advantage of being free from many of those legal fictions which disgrace the laws of some other countries. The inferior courts are those of the sheriffs, magistrates, and justices of the peace.

POPULATION. The population of Scotland, in 1755, was computed at 1,265,000; according to the documents furnished by Sir J. Sinclair's statistical account, the numbers in 1798, were, 1,526,492; and by the government enumeration in 1801, the inhabitants appeared to amount to 1,599,068.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the Scots begin to be much assimilated with those of the English. In their religious ceremonies, attending baptism and marriages, there are variations arising from the Presbyterian form, which does not admit of god-

fathers or god-mothers, but renders the parents alone answerable for the education of the child. The clergyman does not attend at funerals, nor is there any religious service, but generally great decency.

In the luxuries of the table, the superior classes rival the English; several national dishes, originating from the French cooking, in the reign of Mary, being now vulgar or neglected. The diet of the lower classes passes in a gradual transition from the north of England. The chief food is *farich*, or thick pottage, formed with oat-meal and water, and eaten with milk, ale or butter; in a hard lumpy form it is called *brose*. With this the labourer is generally contented twice or thrice in a day, with a little bit of meat for Sunday; nor does he repine at the bacon of the English poor, there being a theological antipathy to swine, which also extends to eels, on account of their serpent-like form.

The sobriety of the lower classes is in general exemplary; the Scottish manufacturer or labourer is ambitious to appear with his family in decent clothes on Sundays, and other holidays. This may be regarded as a striking characteristic of the Scottish peasantry, who prefer the lasting decencies of life to momentary gratifications. To this praise may be added the diffusion of education, which is such, that even the miners in the south possess a circulating library.

The houses of the opulent have been long erected upon the English plan, which can hardly be exceeded for interior elegance and convenience. Even the habitations of the poor have been greatly improved within these few years; instead of the thatched mud hovel, there often appears the neat cottage of stone, covered with tile or slate.

The dresses of the superior classes is the same with that of the English. The gentlemen in the Highlands, especially in the time of war, use the peculiar dress of that country. Among the other classes, the Scottish bonnet is now rarely perceived, except in the Highlands.

LANGUAGE. The Scottish language falls under two divisions; that of the Lowlands, consisting of the ancient Scandinavian dialect, blended with the Anglo-Saxon; and that of the Highlands, which is Irish. The

Orkney Islands being seized by the Norwegians, in the ninth century, the inhabitants retained the Norse language till recent times. They now speak remarkably pure English.

SCHOOLS. The mode of education pursued in Scotland, is highly laudable, and, to judge from its effects, is perhaps, the best practical system pursued in any country in Europe. The plan which is followed in the cities is nearly similar to that of England, either by private teachers, or at large public schools, of which that of Edinburgh is the most eminent. But the superior advantage of the Scottish education consists in every country parish possessing a schoolmaster, as uniformly as a clergyman; at least the rule is general, and the exceptions rare. The schoolmaster has a small salary, or rather pittance, which enables him to educate the children at a rate easy and convenient, even to indigent parents. In the Highlands the poor children will attend to the flocks in the summer, and the school in the winter.

The universities of Scotland, or rather colleges, (for an English university includes many colleges and foundations,) amount to no less than four, three on the eastern coast, St. Andrew's, Aberdeen and Edinburgh; and one on the western, that of Glasgow.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Edinburgh, the capital is comparatively of modern name and note, the earliest hint that can be applied to it, occurring in the *Chronicon Pictorum*, about the year 955, where mention is made of a town called Eden, as resigned by the English to the Scots, then ruled by Indulf. Holyrood-house was the foundation of the first David.

The population of Edinburgh including the port of Leith, was in 1678, computed at 35,500; in 1755, at 70,430; and in 1801, was found by actual enumeration to amount to 82,560.

The arrivals and clearances at Leith harbour, exceed the number of 1700 vessels of various descriptions. Of these 165 belong to the town. The commerce has been stated at half a million annually.

The houses in the old town of Edinburgh, are sometimes of remarkable height, not less than thirteen or fourteen floors, a singularity ascribed to the wish of the an-

cient inhabitants, of being under the protection of the castle.

The new town of Edinburgh is deservedly celebrated for regularity and elegance, the houses being all of free-stone, and some of them ornamented with pillars and pilasters, and it contains several public edifices which would do honour to any capital.

The second city in Scotland is Glasgow, of ancient note in ecclesiastic story, but of small account in the annals of commerce, till the time of Cromwell's usurpation. The population of Glasgow, in 1755, was computed at 23,546, including the suburbs; the number in 1791, was estimated at 61,945; and the amount of the enumeration in 1801, was 77,385. The ancient city was rather venerable than beautiful, but recent improvements have rendered it one of the neatest cities in the empire. Its commerce has arisen to great extent since the year 1718, when the first ship that belonged to Glasgow crossed the Atlantic. The number of ships belonging to the Clyde, in 1790, was 476, the tonnage 46,581; but before the American war it was supposed to have amounted to 60,000 tons. Though the manufactures scarcely exceed half a century in antiquity, they are now numerous and important. That of cotton in 1791, was computed to employ 15,000 looms; and the goods produced were supposed to amount to the yearly value of 1,500,000*l*.

Next in eminence are the cities of Perth and Aberdeen, and the town of Dundee. Perth is an ancient town, supposed to have been the Victoria of the Romans. Linen forms the staple manufacture, to the annual amount of about 60,000*l*. There are also manufactures of leather and paper. Inhabitants 14,878.

About eighteen miles nearer the mouth of the Tay, stands Dundee, in the county of Angus, a neat modern town. The Firth of Tay is here between two and three miles broad; and there is a good road for shipping to the east of the town, as far as Broughty-castle. On the 1st of September, 1651, Dundee was taken by storm by General Monk; and Lumisden, the governor, perished amidst a torrent of bloodshed. The population is however, now equal to 26,084; the public edifices are neat and commodious. In 1792, the vessels belonging to the port

amounted to 116, tonnage 8,550. The staple manufacture is linen, to the annual value of about 80,000*l.* canvass, &c. about 40,000*l.* Coloured thread also forms a considerable article, computed at 33,000*l.* and tanned leather at 14,000*l.*

Aberdeen first rose to notice in the eleventh century, and continued to be chiefly memorable in ecclesiastical story. The population in 1795, was computed at 24,493, but the enumeration in 1801, reduced it to 17,597. Though the harbour be not remarkably commodious, it can boast a considerable trade, the chief exports being salmon and woollen goods. In 1795, the British ships entered at the port, were sixty-one, the foreign five; and the British ships cleared outwards, amounted to twenty-eight. The chief manufactures are woollen goods, particularly stockings, the annual export of which is computed at 123,000*l.*

Greenock, by sharing in the trade with Glasgow, has risen to considerable celebrity; it contains 17,458 inhabitants. Paisley, in the same county is famous for its manufacture of muslins, lawns, and gauzes to the annual amount of 660,000*l.* Population 31,000. Scotland has many other considerable towns, but it would exceed our limits to be more particular.

EDIFICES. Scotland abounds with remarkable edifices, ancient and modern; we shall only mention a few in the vicinity of the capital, viz.

Hopeton-house, the splendid residence of the Earl of Hopeton; Dalkeith-palace, a seat of the Duke of Buccleugh; Newbottel, the seat of the Marquis of Lothian; Melville-castle, the elegant villa of the Rt. Hon. Henry Dundas, and the splendid mansion of the Marquis of Abercorn.

INLAND NAVIGATION. The most remarkable inland navigation in Scotland, is the excellent and extensive canal from the Forth to the Clyde, commenced in 1768, from a survey by Smeaton four years before.

“The dimensions of this canal, though greatly contracted from the original design, are much superior to any work of the same nature in South-Britain. The English canals are generally from three to five feet deep, and from twenty to forty feet wide, and the lock gates from ten to twelve feet. The depth of the canal between the Forth and Clyde is seven feet; its breadth at the sur

face fifty-six feet: the locks are seventy-five feet long, and their gates twenty feet wide. It is raised from the Carron by twenty locks, in a tract of ten miles, to the amazing height of 155 feet above the medium full sea-mark. At the twentieth lock begins the canal of partition on the summit between the east and west seas; which canal of partition continues eighteen miles, on a level, terminating at Hamilton-hill, a mile N. W. of the Clyde, at Glasgow. In the fourth mile of the canal there are ten locks, and a fine aqueduct bridge, which crosses the great road leading from Edinburgh to Glasgow. At Kirkintullock, the canal is carried over the water of Logie, on an aqueduct bridge, the arch of which is ninety feet broad. There are in the whole eighteen draw bridges, and fifteen aqueduct bridges, of considerable size, besides small ones and tunnels."

The supplying the canal with water, was of itself a very great work. One reservoir is above twenty-four feet deep, and covers a surface of fifty acres, near Kilsyth. Another, about seven miles north of Glasgow, consists of seventy acres, and is banked up at the sluice, twenty-two feet.

The distance between the Firths of Clyde, and Forth, by the nearest passage, that of the Pentland Firth, is 600 miles, by this canal scarcely 100. On the 28th of July, 1790, the canal was completely open from sea to sea, when a hogshhead of the water of Forth was poured into the Clyde, as a symbol of their junction.

COMMERCE. The commerce of Scotland, though on a smaller scale, is similar to that of England, and partakes of the national prosperity. The chief exports are linen, grain, iron, glass, lead, woollens, &c. The imports are wines, brandy, rum, sugar, rice, indigo, cotton, tobacco. The fisheries are a growing part of the national wealth. The principal manufactures are linen of various kinds, to the value, it is said, of 750,000*l.* annually. Of woollens, Scotch carpets seem to form the most conspicuous branch. The iron manufactures of Carron are deservedly famous.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Scotland is such as might be expected from its insular situation, and high latitude. In the east there is not so much humidity as in England, as the mountains on the west arrest

the vapours from the Atlantic. On the other hand, the western counties are deluged with rain. Even the winter is more distinguishable for the quantity of snow, than the intensity of the frost. In the summer, the heat in the valleys is reflected with great power. These observations apply chiefly to the north and west. In the east and south, the climate differs but little from that of Yorkshire.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. For a minute account of the various soils that prevail in Scotland, and the different modes of Agriculture, the reader must be referred to the Statistical Accounts, published by Sir John Sinclair. The excellence of the English agriculture, has justly entitled it to an imitation almost universal. But this advantage is of recent date ; and, for a long period of time, Scotland was remarkable for producing the best gardeners and the worst farmers in Europe.

RIVERS. The three chief rivers of Scotland, are the Forth, the Clyde, and the Tay. The chief source of the Forth is from Ben Lomond, or rather from the two lakes, Con and Ard : and about four miles above Sterling, it forms a noble stream.

The Clyde is said to issue from a hill in the S. E. corner of Tweeddale, called Arrik Stane, which is undoubtedly the chief source of the Tweed, and one source of the Annan ; but the Clyde has a more remote source in Kishop, or Dair water, rising about six miles further to the south, in the very extremity of Lanarkshire.

The principal source of the Tay, is the lake of the same name, or the river may be traced to the more westerly sources of the Attrick and the Dochart, and the smaller stream of Locy ; which fall into the western extremity of Loch Tay. The streams of Ericht and Ilay, swell the Tay, about nine miles to the north of Perth ; after passing which city it receives the venerable stream of the Ern, and spreads into a wide estuary.

Next in consequence and in fame, is the Tweed, a beautiful and pastoral stream, which, receiving the Teviot from the south, near Kelso, falls into the sea at Berwick.

LAKES. Scotland abounds in lakes, by the inhabitants called lochs : the principal of which are the loch Tay, the loch Lomond, and the loch Du. They also give the name of loch to an arm of the sea, of which loch Tin

is one, and is 60 miles long and 4 broad. On the top of a hill near Lochness, accounted near two miles perpendicular, is a lake of fresh water, about sixty yards in length, and thought to be unfathomable ; this lake never freezes, whereas the loch-anwyn, or green lake, about 17 miles from it, is perpetually covered with ice.

MOUNTAINS. One of the most striking features of Scotland is its numerous mountains : the chief of which are the Grampian Hills forming the southern boundary of the Highlands : the Pentland hills ; Lamermoor ; and the Cheviot hills. Ben Nevis is the highest mountain in Great Britain, being 4,350 feet above the level of the sea—and yet this is not much above the quarter of the height of Mont Blanc. This mountain on the N. E. presents a precipice almost perpendicular, of 1500 feet in depth ; and affords from its summit a grand view of the circumjacent country, to the extent of about eighty miles.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The soil varies in different parts of the country. It is not in general as fertile as that of England, but as the spirit of improvement has spread through the country, its aspect is changing fast for the better. Many spots which were formerly nothing but barren heath, now exhibit thriving plantations. The vegetable productions of the low-lands are much the same as those of England, but they do not arrive so early at maturity. The high-lands still contain many extensive sterile tracts ; the soil indeed in many places seems only adapted to the propagation of firs.—The animals of Scotland are pretty much the same as those of England. The high-lands are stocked with red-deer, roe-bucks, hares, rabbits, foxes, wild cats, and badgers ; and the hills in general are covered with black cattle and sheep. Grouse and the heath-cock, the capperkailly and plarmacan are found here. The two latter are esteemed great delicacies.—The horses in Scotland are exceedingly small, and great pains have been taken formerly to improve the breed, by importing a large and more noble kind from the Continent, but the soil and climate are so unfavourable, that the cattle always degenerated.—Scotland abounds in its seas, rivers and lakes with fish of all kinds, and contributes great supplies to the English market, particularly in lobsters and salmon.

MINERALS. The chief minerals of Scotland are lead, iron, and coal. The lead-mines in the south of Larkshire have been long known. Those of Wanlockhead are in the immediate neighbourhood, but in the county of Dumfries. Some slight veins of lead have also been found in the western Highlands, particularly Arran. Iron is found in various parts of Scotland; the Carron ore is the most known, it is an argillaceous iron-stone, and is found in slaty masses, and in nodules, in an adjacent coal-mine, of which it sometimes forms the roof. At the Carron-works this ore is often smelted with the red greasy iron ore from Ulverston, in Lancashire, which imparts easier fusion, and superior value. Calamine, or zinc, is also found at Wanlockhead; and it is said, that plumbago and antimony may be traced in Scotland.

But the chief mineral is coal, which has been worked for a succession of ages. Pope Pius II. in his description of Europe, written about 1450, mentions that he beheld with wonder, black stones given as alms to the poor of Scotland. The Lothians and Fifeshire particularly abound with this useful mineral, which also extends into Ayrshire; and near Irwin is found coal, of a curious kind, called ribbon coal.

SCOTISH ISLANDS. The northern and western sides of Scotland are begirt with numerous small islands; on the west lie the Hebrides, or western Islands; on the north, the Orkneys, or Orcades, and still farther north the islands of Shetland, where the hardy inhabitants derive much of their sustenance from climbing the stupendous rocks, in search of birds and their nests, which multiply there in astonishing abundance.

IRELAND.

THE large and fertile island of Ireland, being situated to the west of Great Britain, was probably discovered by the Phœnicians as early as the sister island; and it appears that the island was known to the Greeks by the name of Juverna, about two centuries before the birth of Christ. When Cæsar made his expedition into Britain, he describes Hibernia as being about half the size of the island which he had explored. As the country had become more and more known, the Romans discovered that the ruling people in Ireland were the Scoti, and thenceforth the country began to be termed Scotia; an appellation retained by the monastic writers till the eleventh century, when the name Scotia having passed to modern Scotland, the ancient name of Hibernia began to reassume its honours.

EXTENT. The extent of this island is about 300 miles in length, and about 160 at the greatest breadth. The contents in square miles are about 27,457, which reckoning the population at 3,000,000, will be about 114 persons to a square mile.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. It is probable this island was first peopled by adventurers from Gaul, who were followed by their brethren the Guydill from England. About the time that the Belgæ seized on the south of England, kindred Gothic tribes passed into Ireland. These are the Firbolg of the Irish traditions, and were denominated Scoti by the Romans, as they had made themselves

known, not only by extending their conquests in Ireland, but by invading the Roman province of Britain.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The first historical epoch of Ireland is its population by the Celtic Gauls, and at a subsequent period, by the Belgæ.

2. The conversion of Ireland to Christianity in the fifth century, which was followed by a singular effect; for while the mass of the people retained all the ferocity of savage manners, the monasteries produced many men of such piety and learning, that Scotia or Ireland became celebrated all over Christendom.

3. The lustre diminished by the ravages of the Scandinavians, which began with the ninth century, and can hardly be said to have ceased when the English settlement commenced. The island split into numerous principalities, or kingdoms. The constant dissensions of so many small tribes rendered the island an easy prey.

4. In the year 1170, Henry II. permitted Richard Strongbow Earl of Pembroke to effect a settlement in Ireland, which laid the foundation of the English possessions in that country.

5. Ireland began to produce some manufactures about the fourteenth century, and ker-sayes or thin woollen cloths were exported to Italy.

6. Richard II. king of England, attempted in person the conquest of Ireland, but being imprudent and ill-served, nothing of moment was effected.

7. In the reign of James I. Ireland became entirely subjugated; and colonies of English and Scotch were established in the north.

8. The Irish, instigated by their fanatic priests, executed a dreadful massacre of the English settlers in 1641. This insurrection was not totally crushed till Cromwell led his veterans into Ireland.

9. The appearance of James II. in Ireland to reclaim his crown, may also deserve a place.

10. The amazing progress of Ireland in manufactures and commerce, within these twenty years, may be classed as the most illustrious of its historical epochs.

11. Its union with Great Britain.

RELIGION. The *legal* religion of Ireland is that of the church of England; but it is computed that two-

thirds of the people are Catholics; and of the remaining third the Presbyterians are supposed to constitute one half.

The ecclesiastical discipline of the established church is the same as in England. The Catholics retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist by the voluntary contributions of their votaries; but notwithstanding the blind superstition and ignorance of the latter, Protestantism increases every year. The institution of the Protestant-working schools has contributed much to this salutary purpose.

The Arch-Bishoprics in Ireland are four; Armagh, Dublin, Cashel and Tuam.—The Bishoprics are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dro-more, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leigh-lin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe and Waterford.

GOVERNMENT. Ireland being now happily united with England, the form of government of course is identically the same, except in some minute variations between the statute and common laws of the two islands.

CIVIL DIVISION. Ireland is divided into four provinces, viz. Ulster to the north, which contains nine counties; Connaught to the west, five counties; Leinster to the east, twelve counties; and Munster to the south, six counties.

POPULATION. Agreeably to the most authentic documents, the population of Ireland is about three millions, of which near two-thirds are Roman Catholics, although these latter do not possess one-third of the property real and personal.

MILITARY STRENGTH. In consequence of the late rebellion, and the threats of a French invasion, a very considerable military force is now kept up in Ireland, viz.

Regulars,	45,839.
Militia,	27,104.
Yeomanry,	53,557.

126,500.

REVENUE. The public revenues of Ireland were computed by a late intelligent traveller at about one million sterling, or about 6*s.* 8*d.* per head, when those of England were as high as 29*s.*—But a great proportion of

the emigrants who have made their escape to the United States, and have clamoured so loudly of their oppressions, never paid any public taxes whatever in their native country.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. With respect to the present descendants of the old Irish, they are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilized and blundering people. Impatient of abuse and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and inured to hardships. Some of the old uncouth customs still prevail among them, particularly their funeral howlings, and the placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid out on tables, having a plate on the body to excite the charity of passengers. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, are offensive to every civilized traveller. Their diet consists chiefly of buttermilk and potatoes; and their cottages are wretched hovels of mud. The manners of the superior classes of people now nearly approach to the English standard, and will be more assimilated by the influence of the union.

SCHOOLS. The literature of Ireland has a venerable claim to antiquity. The Anglo-Saxons, in particular, derived their first illumination from Ireland; and in Scotland literature continued to be the special province of the Irish clergy, till the thirteenth century: but the nation sunk again into the grossest ignorance.

It is to be hoped that one consequence, and not the least important of the union, will be the introduction of parochial education into Ireland, as the surest mean of preventing the ebullitions of ignorant discontent, of drunkenness and rebellion.

With four archbishoprics Ireland only possesses one university, that of Dublin. This institution was first projected by archbishop Leech, about the year 1311; but death having interrupted his design, it was revived and executed by Bicknor his successor, and enjoyed moderate prosperity for about forty years, when the revenues failed.

In the reign of Elizabeth, the university was refounded by voluntary contribution, under the auspices of Sidney

the Lord Deputy. It consists of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, provost, vice-provost, twenty-two fellows, and thirteen professors of various sciences. The number of students is commonly about four hundred, including seventy on the foundation. The building consists of two quadrangles, and it contains a library of some account, and a printing-office.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Dublin the capital city of Ireland seems to be the Eblana of Ptolemy ; but continued little known till the tenth century, when it was mentioned in the Saxon Chronicle ; and in the beginning of the next century, we have coins of Canute struck at Dublin. The situation is delightful, in a bottom, between ranges of hills on the south and north. It is pervaded by the river Liffy, and by some rivulets. The inhabitants have been estimated at 150,000 ; this capital being justly accounted the second in the British dominions.

In proceeding to give an account of the other principal towns and cities of Ireland, Cork, and Limerick attract the first attention. Cork is a city of considerable importance, situated on the south-east side of the island, and supposed to contain about 70,000 inhabitants. It is the grand market of Irish provisions ; and it was computed that not less than a hundred thousand cattle were here annually killed and salted between the months of August and January. The duties of the harbour, in 1751 were 62,000*l.* and in 1779, 140,000*l.* a prodigious improvement in twenty-eight years.

Limerick unites the fortunate situation of being almost central to the south of Ireland, with an excellent haven, formed by the long estuary of the river Shannon. The city is accounted the third in Ireland, and was formerly fortified with great care. There are three bridges over the river, one of which consists of fourteen arches. The number of inhabitants has been computed at 50,000. The chief exports are beef and other provisions.

Galway is a town of considerable note, and carries on an extensive trade with the West Indies. The port is commodious and safe, but distant from the city, which can only be reached by vessels of small burden : the number of inhabitants is computed at 12,000.

Londonderry is more remarkable for its ancient and military fame than for its present commerce, though not unimportant. It stands on the river Foyle, over which a wooden bridge of singular construction, one thousand and sixty-eight feet in length, was thrown in 1791.

Belfast on the north-east is in the centre of the linen manufactures, and may almost be regarded as a Scottish colony. The inhabitants are computed at 18,000. The chief manufactures, cotton, cambric, sail-cloth, linen, with glass, sugar, and earthen-ware. It maintains considerable intercourse with the commercial city of Glasgow; and the grand exports are to the West Indies and America.

Waterford is a city of considerable importance, situated on the river Suir, and is supposed to have been founded by the Danes. It suffered greatly in the late disorders; and the inhabitants cannot now be supposed to exceed 30,000. The chief exports are beef, pork, &c. and linen. Packet-boats sail regularly betwixt Waterford and Milford Haven.

EDIFICES. The chief edifices of Ireland are confined to the capital. The cathedrals seldom aspire to great praise of architecture; and the villas of the nobility generally yield in splendour to those of England, and even of Scotland.

INLAND NAVIGATION. The advantages derived by England from inland navigation soon attracted the attention of Ireland; and not many years after the example set by the Duke of Bridgewater, a grand canal was begun from the city of Dublin to the river Shannon, and was actually carried on to the bog of Allen, at the expence of 77,000*l*. But the engineer's want of ability occasioned great errors in the original plan and survey; and the work was interrupted in 1770.

A canal is completed from the town of Newry to the sea, which was, however, intended to have passed that town towards the collieries of Drumglass and Dungannon. This attempt, however, to supply Dublin with Irish coals, has hitherto been only successful in part, though the beds of coals are said to be very abundant.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. Though we find that Ireland was distinguished at an early period for her manufacture of woollen-stuffs, yet the spirit of industry

made little progress, and the chief Irish manufactures are of recent institution. But the linen manufacture was not unknown in Ireland in more early times, as appears from the acts of parliament in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth. The annual produce of the linen manufacture is computed at about 2,000,000*l.* sterling: and the average of all the exports of Ireland is between four and five millions.

CLIMATE. Ireland lying nearly in the same parallel with England, the difference of climate cannot be supposed to be very important. The mean temperature of the north is about 48; of the middle 50; of the south 52 of Fahrenheit.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. Mr. Young observes, that the quantity of the cultivated land exceeds, in proportion, that of England. The most striking feature is the rocky nature of the soil, stones generally appearing on the surface, yet without any injury to the fertility; even in the most flat and fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath. The climate being more moist than that of England, the verdure never appears parched with heat. Tillage is little understood, even in the best corn counties; turnips and clover being almost unknown. The farmers are oppressed by a class of *middle men*, who rent farms from the landlords, and let them to the real occupiers. Lime-stone gravel is a manure peculiar to Ireland; having, on uncultivated land, the same wonderful effects as lime, and on all soils it is beneficial.

RIVERS. Among the chief rivers of Ireland must be mentioned the Shannon, which rises from the lake of Allen; and passing through two other large lakes, extends below Limerick, into a vast estuary or firth, about sixty miles in length, and from three to ten in breadth. This noble river is, almost through its whole course, so wide and deep, as to afford easy navigation. The other principal rivers are the Barrow, Nour, Suir, Banna, Lee, Liffy and Boyne.

The *lakes* of Ireland are numerous, and some of them extensive. The chief lake of fresh water is that of Earn, which exceeds thirty British miles in length, and twelve in its greatest breadth; it is divided by a narrow outlet from the southern part into the northern, of about four miles in length.

Next in magnitude is Neagh, about twenty-two miles in length, and twelve in breadth. Both these lakes are studded with small islands; and the latter is said to possess a petrifying quality.

The lake of Corrib, in the county of Galway, is about twenty miles in length, and from two to five wide.

Among the lakes of the second magnitude we will only mention the beautiful and interesting Lough of Killarney in the S. W. abounding with romantic views, and fringed with the arbutus, no where else a native of the British dominions.

MOUNTAINS. Among the highest mountains in Ireland are the mountains of Carlingford, the Curlicus, which separate the counties of Sligo and Roscommon; those in the county of Donegal; the Manguton mountains in the county of Kerry; Croah Patrick in the county of Mayo; and the Galtee mountains, in the county of Tipperary.

Bogs. These are numerous in Ireland, and are of different kinds. Some are grassy, in which the water being concealed by the herbage, they are extremely perilous to travellers; others are pools of water and mire; and others are hassocky bogs, or shallow lakes studded with tufts of rushes—and lastly the peat moors. Ornaments of gold, and other relics of antiquity have been found, from time to time, in the bogs at great depths.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. There is little under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being mostly similar to those of England and Scotland.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of Ireland has been recently celebrated for the discovery of considerable masses of native gold, in the county of Wicklow, to the south of Dublin. It is reported that a jeweller who lately died in Dublin, often declared that gold taken from that spot, had passed through his hands to the value of 30,000*l*. It is now worked for government, and it is said that a very massy vein has been recently discovered. The silver found in the Irish mines mingled with lead deserve more attention. One of these mines in the county of Antrim, yielded a pound of pure silver to thirty pounds of lead. Ireland

likewise possesses some mines of copper, and some of coal, the latter perhaps as pure as any in the world.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. What is called the Giant's Causeway, must be distinguished as the most remarkable curiosity in Ireland. This surprising collection of basaltic pillars is about eight miles N. E. from Coleraine; and projects into the sea to an unknown extent. The part explored is about 600 feet in length; the breadth from 240 to 120 feet; and the height from 16 to 36 feet above the level of the strand. It consists of many thousand pillars, mostly of a pentagonal form, in a vertical position, all of them separate, though close together, so as to form a pavement, of gradual ascent. In the days of ignorance, this was considered as a stupendous work of art, but it is now more justly viewed as a rare natural phenomenon.

FRANCE.

FRANCE is deservedly considered amongst the most eminent European states.—In the year 600 before Christ the Phocæans, sailing from Ionia, founded Massilia, now called Marseilles. The more ancient inhabitants were Celts, the aborigines of great part of western Europe.—The southern parts of Gaul (the original name of the country) became known at an early period to the Romans, who entered that region about 120 years before the Christian æra, and soon afterwards founded the province termed Gallia Bracata, from bracca, a sort of breeches worn by the inhabitants ; but the remainder of this extensive and fertile country was reserved for the conquering arms of Julius Cæsar. On the decline of the Roman empire it was over-run by the Franks, an assemblage of tribes from lower Germany, and from them it received its present denomination.

EXTENT. The extent of France before the recent acquisitions, was computed at 148,840 square miles ; and supposing the then population to be 26,000,000, would render 174 inhabitants to each mile square. The boundaries were, on the west, the Atlantic ocean ; on the south, the Mediterranean and Pyrenees ; on the east, Savoy, Swisserland, and Germany ; on the north, the Austrian Netherlands, the German sea, and English Channel. It extends from about the 42d to near the 51st degree of N. latitude ; from about the 7th degree of longitude west from Paris, to about the 5th on the east ; being in length,

N. to S. about 600 British miles, and in breadth, W. to E. about 560.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The primitive inhabitants were the Celts, to whom no anterior people can be traced in the western regions of Europe; but on the S. W. the Aquitani, of African descent, had passed from Spain; and on the N. E. the warlike German tribes, known by the name of Belgæ, had seized on a third part of the country, where they introduced the Gothic language and manners. On the S. also the German Gauls had diffused themselves into what was called Gallia Braccata: nor must the Greek colonies be forgotten. The solidity and duration of the Roman conquests diffused the Latin language through all ranks, together with their laws and government.

DIVISIONS. Before the revolution this kingdom was divided into provinces. The national assembly, intent on destroying every ancient vestige, thought proper to parcel it out into eighty-three departments. The recent conquests have been moulded to a similar form, under the name of re-united departments, making an addition of eighteen, besides the latter annexation of Piedmont and the isle of Elba.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. 1. The primitive population of the Celts, and the conquests of the Aquitani, and Belgæ.

2. The complete conquest of the country by Julius Cæsar.

3. Its reduction by the Franks under Clovis, about the year 490, and the conversion of the Franks to the Christian faith, five years after that period.

4. The obscure and distracted history of the Merovingian race, till its final extinction in the middle of the eighth century.

5. The Carlovingian race, which ascended the throne in the year 752, and was followed, twenty years afterwards, by the celebrated reign of Charlemagne, who carried the power of France to the utmost extent and splendour, having in particular, subdued the greatest part of Germany, where he became the founder and first sovereign of what has since been styled the German Em-

pire, A. D. 800, and which remained with his descendants for near a century.

6. The accession of the house of Capet in the year 987.

7. The crusades in which the French bore the chief sway.

8. The wars with England. The acquisition of France by Henry V. and its deliverance by the Maid of Orleans, or rather by Charles VII. styled the victorious.

9. The reign of Lewis XI. who, crushing such powerful princes as were left after the English shock, may be regarded as the father of absolute monarchy.

10. The reign of Francis I. called the father of the arts and letters, during which the French, who had been regarded as barbarians by the more civilized people of Italy, began, on the contrary, to be distinguished by superior refinement. This is also the first epoch of a standing army in Europe.

11. The intestine commotions with the Protestants, and massacre of St. Bartholomew.

12. The reign of Henry IV.

13. That of Louis XIV. too much extolled by the French, and too much degraded by other nations.

14. The recent revolution, or revolutions which have followed one another with a rapidity that has astonished Europe, and which in the singularity and importance of the events, rival the pages of ancient history.

ANTIQUITIES. Several ancient monuments exist in France which are ascribed to the first epoch. The Greek colony at Marseilles seems to have imparted some degree of civilization to the country, and the rude Gallic coins are evidently an imitation of the Grecian model.

The Roman antiquities in France are numerous, and some of them in excellent preservation. Those at Nismes are particularly celebrated, consisting chiefly of an amphitheatre, and the temple called La Maison Carré.

The disclosure of the grave of Childeric, near Tournay, in the last century presented some of the most curious fragments. In an old tower of St. Germain du Pré are representations of several of the first monarchs of the Franks, and many of their effigies were preserved on their tombs at St. Dennis and other places, till the late revolution.

The monuments of the Carlovingian race are yet more numerous, and Roman mosaics have illustrated the fame of Charlemagne. Of the later periods one of the most singular is the suit of tapestry, preserved in the Cathedral church of Bayeux, representing the beginning and termination of the grand contest between William and Harold, which led to the conquest of England by the Normans. It is said to have been the work of Matilda, wife of William ; and bears every mark of that remote antiquity.

RELIGION. The religion of France is the Roman Catholic, but the Gallican church, since its re-establishment by Bonaparte, has been considerably modified and rendered almost wholly independent on Roman influence.

GOVERNMENT. To attempt to describe the present government of France would be as vague as writing on the sands of a troubled ocean. Equally futile would be the attempt to describe laws, where there is no code ; and which fluctuate according to the despotism or clemency of the rulers. At present the government, both in form and spirit, is a mere military despotism, the two senates being the passive instruments of the commander in chief, who has styled himself Emperor of the French.

POPULATION. The population of France was formerly computed at 26,000,000, but the recent acquisitions, if durable, would swell it to the formidable extent of 34,000,000. At all events France is a country teeming with population, and quickly resumes her vigour after stupendous losses, as Europe has repeatedly experienced.

COLONIES. The French colonies are at present unimportant, and it is probable will be lost for ever, if the war which now rages, should continue a few years ; and of course the maritime importance of the nation will be almost annihilated.

ARMY. The political convulsions which have agitated this unhappy country, and yet more the despotism of its rulers have occasionally, within these few years, swelled the French armies to the amazing computation of upwards of a million. By a statement lately published, in the *Etat Militaire*, they now consist of 110 demi-brigades of 3,200 each ; of 30 light demi-brigades of the same compliment ; eight regiments of foot artillery, each of

20 companies ; eight of horse artillery, each of 466 men ; 26 regiments of cavalry ; and 20 regiments of dragoons, each of 800 men ; 25 regiments of chasseurs, and 12 regiments of hussars, of the like number. The whole exclusive of engineers, miners, &c. forming a force of 413,728.

NAVY. The maritime power of France was formidable even to England, till the battle of La Hogue, since which the British flag has reigned triumphant on the ocean, and the struggles of France, though often energetic, have encountered the fixed destiny of inevitable defeat.

REVENUE. The revenue of France was formerly computed at about 30,000,000*l.* sterling ; from which, after deducting the expence of collection, and the payment of the interest on the national debt, there remained clear about 18,000,000 ; but any attempt to calculate the present state of the revenue must be vague and inconclusive : One half of it, perhaps, is wrung from allies and neutrals, the United States not excepted.

The common current money of France has been computed at 90,000,000*l.* sterling, while that of Great Britain has been estimated at 40,000,000*l.* The late conquests have enriched France, and especially Paris, with the rapine of many provinces ; and the generals vie with the Romans in wealth and luxury : in a coarse imitation of their worst vices.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. The political importance and relations of France continue to be vast ; nor was the prodigious power of this state ever so completely felt and acknowledged, as after a revolution and a war which threatened her very existence. When expected to fall an easy prey, she suddenly arose the aggressor, and has astonished Europe by the rapidity and extent of her victories. The rivalry of many centuries between France and England sunk into a petty dispute, when compared with this mighty contest, which will be felt and deplored by distant posterity. Yet, by the protection of all-ruling providence, the British empire has risen superior to the struggles, and remained free from those scenes of carnage and devastation, which attended the French progress into other countries ; and the French

navy being reduced to so insignificant a force, Great Britain has less to apprehend from France, than at any former period. The other powers of Europe, except Russia and the northern states, are either victims or associates of the ambitious projects of their common enemy.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the French have been often delineated, but with great deviation from the true likeness. The most pleasing parts of the portrait are vivacity, gaiety, politeness, and a singular disposition towards social enjoyments. On the other hand ancient and recent events conspire to affix a sanguinary stain and a rapacity on the national character, which are hardly reconcileable to so much gaiety, and seeming benevolence.

The ancient and rooted enmity between England and France nourished many prejudices against the French character, which have since disappeared in the reports of more candid authors. Yet, with travellers accustomed to the elegance of English life, many of the French manners and customs cannot be reconciled to ideas of physical purity; and the looseness of morals, in regard to the sex, has become proverbial. The republican form of government has only spread the contagion wider, nor has the liberty of divorce proved any bond of chastity.

LANGUAGE. The French language is the most universally diffused of any in the courts of Europe; and the consequence is felt in the variety and extent of their intrigues. In variety, clearness, and precision, and idioms adapted to life, business, and pleasure, it yields to no modern speech; but it wants force and dignity, and yet more, sublimity. The French language is a well known corruption of the Roman, mingled with Celtic and Gothic words and idioms. But while the Italian remains the same from the days of Danté and Petrarca, through a lapse of 500 years, the epoch of classical purity of the French language commences with the reign of Louis XIV. The recent revolution has introduced such exuberance of new words and phrases, that a neological dictionary is required to explain them.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. The state of education in all the Catholic countries was very defective till the Jesuits gave great attention to this important department; to

which, if their exertions had been solely directed they would have proved a most useful body of men.

At the time when this religious order was suppressed, France boasted of twenty-one universities; in the north, Douay, Caën, Paris, Rheims, Nanci, Strasburg; in the middle provinces, Nantes, Angers, Poitiers, Orléans, Bourges, Dijon, Besancon; and in the south, Bourdeaux, Pau, Perpignan, Toulouse, Montpellier, Aix, Orange, Valence. Of these the Sorbonne of Paris was the most celebrated; but it shewed an irremediable tendency to prolong the reign of scholastic theology. The academies and literary societies were computed at thirty-nine. Those of Paris, in particular, have been long known to the learned world, by elegant and profound volumes of dissertations on the sciences, and on the Belles Lettres. Nor have public institutions of this kind been foreign to the consideration of the new government.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The ample extent of this country displays a corresponding number of important cities and towns, of which we shall notice a few of the principal. Paris, the capital, rises on both sides the river Seine, in a pleasant and healthy situation, with delightful environs. It is divided into three parts; the town, *ville*, on the north, the city in the middle, and that part called the university on the south. It is mentioned by Cæsar as being restricted in his time to an island in the midst of the Seine. An intelligent traveller supposes Paris to be one-third smaller than London: and the inhabitants probably amount to between 5 and 600,000. The houses are chiefly built with free stone, from quarries like catacombs, which run in various directions under the streets; so that an earthquake would be peculiarly destructive, and might completely bury the city. The banks of the Seine present noble quays; and the public buildings are not only elegant in themselves, but are placed in open and commanding situations. The Louvre is arranged among the best specimens of modern architecture; and the church of St. Genevieve, now the Pantheon, is also deservedly admired; nor must the Thuilleries, the Palais Royale, and Hospital of Invalids be forgotten. Paris, no doubt, exceeds London in magnificence, but yields greatly in cleanliness and convenience; and the streets generally without accommodation for foot passengers, loudly bespeak the inattention of the govern-

ment to the middle and lower classes of men. The revolution and its consequent rapine have enlarged and adorned the public collections ; and, by enriching numerous individuals, has enabled them to increase their favourite city with new and beautiful streets and squares.

Next to Paris in extent and population was the noble city of Lyons, which was supposed to contain about 100,000 souls. As the chief manufactures were articles of luxury, silk, cloths of gold, and silver, &c. it was natural that this venerable town should be firmly attached to the ancient aristocracy, though with consequences incalculably fatal to its prosperity. During the infatuated reign of the jacobins it was besieged, captured, and, after the wildest and basest massacres, was doomed to final demolition. But as there are bounds even to rage and folly, this decree was only executed in part. Though Lyons will probably never recover its ancient extent and opulence.

The third and fourth cities of France are Marseilles and Bourdeaux ; each peopled by about 80,000 souls. The foundation of Marseilles has been already mentioned, and the city remains worthy of its ancient fame, the port being at the same time one of the best and most frequented in the whole Mediterranean. The exchange is a noble building, and the new parts of the city are beautiful.

Bourdeaux was a prosperous city, but the trade must have suffered great injury. The port is ample and commodious, with extensive quays. The chief exports are wine and brandy, particularly the vin de Bourdeaux, which we term claret, because it is of a clear and transparent red, while tent and some other wines are opake.

EDIFICES. Several of the most noble edifices of France are in Paris, and its vicinity. To those already mentioned must be added, the palace of Versailles, rather remarkable, however, for the profusion of expence, than for the skill of the architect ; the parts being small and unharmonious, and the general effect rather idle pomp than true grandeur. The bridge of Neuille is esteemed the most beautiful in Europe, consisting of five wide arches of equal size. The ancient cathedrals and castles are numerous, but the latter are by no means conspicuous for their elegance or taste.

INLAND NAVIGATION. The inland navigation of France has been promoted by several capital exertions.

The canal of Briare, otherwise styled that of Burgundy, opens a communication between the Loire and the Seine, or in other words between Paris and the western provinces. Passing by Montargis it joins the canal of Orleans, and falls into the Seine near Fontainebleau.

The canal of Picardy extends from the Somme to the Oise, beginning at St. Quentin, and forming a convenient intercourse to the provinces in the N. E.

But the chief work of this description is the celebrated canal of Languedoc, commenced and completed in the reign of Louis XIV. under the auspices of that able minister Colbert. Fifteen years of labour were employed, from 1666 to 1681. This noble canal begins in the bay of Languedoc; and at St. Ferriol is a reservoir of 595 acres of water; it enters the Garonne about a quarter of a mile below the city of Toulouse. The breadth, including the towing paths, is 144 feet; the depth six feet; the length 64 French leagues, or about 180 miles. The expence was about half a million sterling.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The articles of commerce in France, are its wines, brandy, vinegar, fruits, as prunes, prunellos, dried grapes, pears, apples, oranges, and olives; drugs, oils, and chymical preparations; silks, embroidery, tapestry, cambrics, lawns, laces, brocades, and woollens, in imitation of the English; paper, parchment, and toys.

From this detail some idea may be formed of the commerce of France. By the account of 1784, which did not include Lorain or Alsace, nor the West India trade,

Total Exports were 307,151,700 livres.

Imports 271,365,000

Balance 35,786,700, or 1,565,668*l.* sterling.

The trade with the West Indies gave a large balance against France.

In the year 1788, the average	}	12,500,000 <i>l.</i> sterling
Imports of France were about		
Exports, nearly,		15,000,000
In the same year	}	18,000,000
Imports of Great Britain were		
Exports, ditto.		17,500,000

Since the beginning of the French revolution the commerce of England has been constantly increasing—while that of her envious rival has been almost annihilated.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of so extensive a country as France, may be expected to be various. In general it is far more clear and serene than that of England; but the northern provinces are exposed to heavy rains, which however produce beautiful verdure and rich pastures. France may be divided into three climates, the northern, the central, and the southern. The first yields no wines; the second no maize; the third produces wines, maize and olives. These divisions proceed in an oblique line from the S. W. to the N. E. so as to demonstrate “that the eastern part of the kingdom is two and a half degrees of latitude hotter than the western, or if not hotter more favourable to vegetation.”

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The variations of the soil are very considerable. The N. E. part from Flanders to Orleans is a rich loam. Further to the W. the land is poor and stony; Brittany gravel, or gravelly sand, with low ridges of granite. The chalk runs through the centre of the kingdom, from Germany by Champagne to Saintonge; and on the N. of the mountainous tract is a large extent of gravel, but even the mountainous region of the south is generally fertile, though the large province formerly called Gascony presents many level heaths.

The defects of French agriculture, consist in frequent fallows, while the English farmer obtains even superior crops of corn, by substituting turnips and other green crops to the fallows; besides the clear profit from his clover, turnips or tares.

In some of the provinces, however, the plans of agriculture correspond with the natural fertility of the soil; and others display a most laudable industry. There is a remarkable instance exhibited in the barren mountains of the Cevennes. As the waters which run down the sides carry considerable quantities of earth into the ravines, walls of loose stones are erected which permit the waters to pass when they are clear; but when turbid their load of earth is gradually deposited against the wall, and affords a space of fertile soil. Successive ramparts are thus erected to the very top of the mountain; and the water, having no longer a violent fall, only serves to nourish the crops, which are

moreover protected by planting fruit trees at certain intervals, so as to lend security and consistence to the new acquisition.

RIVERS. Among the rivers of France four are most eminent; the Seine, the Loire, the Rhone, and the Garonne. The first is one of the most beautiful streams of France: rising in the department of Côte D'Or, it pursues its course to the N. W. till it enters the English channel at Havre de Grace, after a course of about 250 English miles.

The Loire derives its source from Mont Gerbier in the N. of ancient Languedoc; and after a northern course turns to the west, entering the ocean a considerable way beyond Nantes, after a course of about 500 miles.

The Rhone springs from the Glacier of Furca, near the mountain of Grimsel in Swisserland; and after passing the beautiful vales of the Vallais, and the lake of Geneva, bends its course towards the south, and enters the Mediterranean. The comparative course 400 miles.

The Garonne rises in the vale of Arau in the Pyrenees. The course of this river is generally N. W. It extends to about 250 miles. After its junction with the Dordogne, it assumes the name of the Gironde, which gave its distinctive appellation to a faction that fell under the axe of Robespierre.

The principal mountains of France are in its southern departments.

Mount Jura, a vanguard of the Alps, forms a boundary between France and Swisserland. If Mont Blanc be admitted among the French mountains, the other Alps cannot rival its supreme elevation. The ancient province of Dauphiné displays several Alpine branches, which also extend through great part of Provence.

The grand chain of the Cevennes seems to run from N. to S. and to send out branches towards the E. and W. The northern part of the chain is styled the Puy de Dome, while the southern is called that of Cantal. The Monts D'Or form the centre, and are the highest mountains in France. The chief elevation is that of the Puy de Sanfi, capped with perpetual snow, which rises about 6,300 feet above the level of the sea, while the Puy de Dome is about 5000, and the Plomb du Cantal, the highest of that part, is about 6,200 feet. On the 23d of June, 1727, Pradines, a village on the slope of one of these mountains, was totally

overwhelmed, the whole mountain with its basaltic columns, rolling into the valley. The inhabitants were fortunately engaged in the celebration of midsummer eve, around a bonfire at some distance from the mountain..

The Pyrenees remain to be described. To the surprise of naturalists, they have been found to present calcareous appearances, and even shells and skeletons of animals, near or upon their highest summits, which are in the centre of the chain. Mont Perdu is considered as the highest elevation of the Pyrenees, ascending above the sea 1751 French toises, or about 11,000 feet English. The Pyrenean chain appears at a distance like a shaggy ridge, presenting the segment of a circle fronting France, and descending at each extremity till it disappears in the ocean and Mediterranean.

Perdu is of very difficult access, as the calcareous rock often assumes the form of perpendicular walls, from 100 to 600 feet in height; and the snows, ice, and glaciers, increase the difficulty. Near the summit is a considerable lake, more than 9000 feet above the level of the sea, which throws its waters to the east into the Spanish valley of Beoussa.*

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. So great indeed is the extent and so various the climate of France that probably more than half the European species of plants may be found within its boundaries. That country which produces in full and equal perfection wheat and apples, maize, and grapes, oranges and olives, the oak and the myrtle, must doubtless exceed all other European countries of equal extent in the variety and richness of its vegetable treasures; but a bare enumeration of them would occupy more room than can be allotted to them in a work like the present.

The horses of France do not appear to have been celebrated at any period; and it is well known that the ancient monarchs were drawn to the national assemblies by oxen. Many English horses are in times of peace imported for the coach and the saddle. The best native horses for draught, are those of Normandy; for the saddle, those of the Limouzin, which have been recently improved by crossing the breed with the Arabian, Turkish, and English. But the greater number of horses in France consists of Bédets, small animals of little show, but great utility. The

cattle of Limoges, and some other provinces, are of a beautiful cream colour. The sheep are ill managed, having in winter only straw, instead of green food as in England. The consequences are poor fleeces, and rarity of sheep, so that the poor are forced to eat bread only, and large quantities of wool are imported. Of ferocious animals the most remarkable are the wild boar and the wolf; the ibex and chamois, are found on the Pyrenees and the Alps.

MINERALS. Gold mines anciently existed in the S. of France, and some of the rivulets still roll down particles of that metal. France can also boast of the silver mines at St. Marie-aux-Mines in Alsace, and elsewhere. The same as well as other districts contain mines of copper. The Duchy of Deux Ponts, one of the fraternized acquisitions of France on the west of the Rhine, is celebrated for mines of quicksilver. The annual product of these mines may be estimated at 67,200 pounds of mercury. Two-thirds of the lead of France are from Bretagne, particularly the mines of Poullaouen and Huelgoet.

Iron, that most important and universal of metals, is found in abundance, particularly in some of the northern departments. In 1798 it was computed that there were 2000 furnaces, forges, &c. for the working of iron and steel.

The coal mines of France were at the same time estimated at 400, constantly wrought; and 200 more capable of being wrought. Nearly allied to coal is jet, an article formerly of great consumption, chiefly in Spain, where it was made into rosaries, crosses, buttons for black dresses, &c.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. Among the natural curiosities of France, the most worthy of notice is the plain of La Crau, which lies in Provence, not far from the mouth of the Rhone. This is the most singular stony desert that is to be found in France, or perhaps in Europe. The diameter is about five leagues, and the contents from 20 to 25 square leagues, or about 150,000 English acres.

FRENCH ISLES. The isles around France are so small, and unimportant, that they would scarcely be deserving of notice, were it not for events that have taken place during the late war. The isle of Corsica must however be excepted, as it gave birth to Napoleon Bonaparte, a military adventurer, and now emperor of France.

The isles called Hyeres, near Toulon, have at present a barren and naked appearance, and only present some melancholy pines. They however contain some botanic riches, and may claim the fame of being Homer's isle of Calypso.

On the western coast first occurs the isle of Oleron, about fourteen miles long, by two broad, celebrated for a code of maritime laws issued by Richard I. king of England. To the N. is the isle of Ré, opposite Rochelle, noted for an expedition of the English in the seventeenth century. Bellisle has been repeatedly attacked by the English: it is about nine miles long and three broad, surrounded by steep rocks, which, with the fortifications, render the conquest difficult. The isle of Ushant, or Ouessant, is remarkable as the furthest headland of France, towards the west, being about twelve miles from the continent, and about nine in circumference, with several hamlets, and about 600 inhabitants. And St. Marcou, held by the British during the last war, in defiance of all the power of the great nation, although it is only seven miles from their shores.

NETHERLANDS.

THOSE provinces of the Netherlands which were formerly subject to the house of Austria, have been recently annexed to the French dominions ; and this fertile territory may probably continue to be united to France, as to acquire it was one reason why the French murdered their king and queen, and established a republic.

NAMES. The Netherlands in general were anciently known by the name of Belgic Gaul, and therefore the French, in their new-fangled vocabulary, call them *re-united* departments.

EXTENT. The length of the Austrian Netherlands, computed from the eastern limit of Luxembourg to Ostend on the ocean, may be about 180 British miles ; and about 120 in breadth, from the northern boundary of Austrian Brabant to the most southern limit of Hainaut. The extent is computed at 7,520 square miles, with a population of 1,900,000.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population was Celtic succeeded by the Belgæ, and afterwards vanquished by the Franks.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. 1. The events while the Romans held Gaul.

2. Under the Merovingian race of French kings.

3. The ancient earls of Flanders, and Hainaut, and other potentates who shared these territories.

4. The dukes of Burgundy. During these two epochs the Netherlands became the great mart of commerce in

the west of Europe, and were distinguished by opulence and the arts.

5. The Austrian domination, accompanied with repeated unsuccessful struggles for freedom. The seven United Provinces having, however, established their liberty, the commerce, and prosperity of the southern regions passed quickly to their northern neighbours.

6. Their conquest by the French and annexation to the territory of the republic.

RELIGION, &c. The religion of the Netherlands is the Roman Catholic ; and till the French revolution, the inhabitants were noted for their bigotry. The metropolitan see was the archbishopric of Mechlin, or Malines. The bishoprics were those of Bruges, Antwerp, Ghent, &c. in number nine or ten. The government and laws had many features of freedom. The *Joyeuse Entree* was the magna charta of the Netherlands, a constitutional bond of national privileges, which the inhabitants foolishly exchanged for French fraternity.

POPULATION, &c. The population being computed at 1,900,000, and the square extent at 7,520 miles, there will be 252 inhabitants to the square mile, while France yields only 174. Under the Austrian power, the revenue of the Netherlands scarcely defrayed the expences of government, and the various extortions of the French rulers cannot afford any sufficient data to compute an equitable and lasting revenue.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the Netherlands partake of those of their neighbours, the Dutch and French, but principally of the latter, which, together with the common use of the French language, paved the way for their subjugation.

P. SCHOOLS. The education was neglected as in most Catholic countries. The universities, which in no country are of equal importance with the schools, were, however, numerous, considering the extent of the country. Exclusive of Tournay, (Dornick) which has been long subject to the French, there were others at Douay, and St. Omer, much frequented by the English Catholics ; and one of still greater celebrity at Louvain, founded in 1425.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The three chief cities in what were called the Austrian Netherlands, are Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp. The capital city of Brussels still

contains about 80,000 inhabitants, and is beautified by a noble square, one side of which is occupied with a vast guildhall; and by numerous churches and fountains. The imperial palace, the wonted residence of the governor of the Netherlands, displays considerable taste and magnificence.

Ghent contains about 60,000 souls, and the circumference of the walls is computed at 15 miles, as it is built on a number of little islands formed by four rivers, and many canals, and includes gardens, and even fields.

The inhabitants of Antwerp are computed at 50,000, the sad remains of great population and prosperity. The streets, houses, and churches, are worthy of the ancient fame of the city. The exchange is said to have afforded the pattern for that of London. In 1568 the trade is supposed to have been at its greatest height; and the number of inhabitants was computed at 200,000.

EDIFICES. In general it may be observed, that even at the present day, every traveller is impressed with surprise, not only at the number, but the great extent of the Flemish cities, towns, and even villages; in which respect the Netherlands exceed every country in Europe, only excepting the United Provinces. The chief edifices are the cathedrals, churches and monasteries; together with a few castles belonging to ancient families, or rich merchants.

INLAND NAVIGATION. Idle would be the attempt even to enumerate the canals which intersect these provinces in all directions. Some of them date even from the tenth century, and the canal from Brussels to the Scheld is of the sixteenth. Other important canals extend from Ghent, Antwerp, Ostend, and other cities and towns, especially in the western districts.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The manufactures and commerce of the Netherlands, for a long period superior to any in the west of Europe, have suffered a radical decline, owing partly to the other powers entering into competition; and partly to the establishment of freedom in the United Provinces, whence Amsterdam arose upon the ruins of Antwerp. What little commerce remains is chiefly inland to Germany, the external employing very few native vessels. The chief manufactures are of fine linen, and laces, at Mechlin, Brussels, Ghent, Ant-

werp, Louvain, which still enrich the country around, and induce the farmers to cultivate flax, even on the poorest soils.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, &c. The climate of the Netherlands considerably resembles that of the south of England, and is more remarkable for moisture than for warmth; yet the duchy of Luxembourg produces some wine. The soil is in general rich sandy loam, sometimes interspersed with fields of clay, but more often with large spaces of sand. Such has been, even in distant ages, the state of agriculture that the Netherlands were long esteemed the very garden of Europe, a praise which they still share with Lombardy and England. The repeated crops of excellent clover, the cole, the turnips, the clean crops of flax, barley, and oats, deservedly attract attention.

RIVERS. The Netherlands are watered by so many rivers and canals, that it will be sufficient to mention only a few of the chief streams. The chief river is the Scheld, which receives two other streams, the Lys, and the Scalpe, the latter near Mortagne, the former near Ghent. All these rivers arise in the county of Artois, from no considerable elevation; and the whole course of the Scheld, or French Escaut, cannot be comparatively estimated at above 120 miles. Most of the other rivers yield in importance to the canals, and it would indeed be difficult in many instances to determine whether their course be the work of nature or art.

MOUNTAINS, &c. Though there be little ridges of hills in the counties of Namur and Luxembourg, the traveller must proceed to the distant banks of the Rhine before he meets with any elevation that can deserve the name even of a small mountain.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The vegetable productions of the Catholic Netherlands differ in no respect from those of Holland, and almost all the plants that are natives of this country may be met with in the sandy and marshy districts of the south-east coast of England.

The breed of horses and cattle is esteemed for size and strength.

MINERALS. So plain a country cannot be supposed to supply many minerals: yet coal, perhaps the most precious of them all, is found in several districts, and the

ingenuity of the French has been exerted in an improvement of the operations. In the county of Namur are also found lead and copper; and Hainaut affords iron and slate. From its iron works Luxembourg derives its chief wealth; and the forest of Ardennes is still renowned for the metal of war. Marble and alabaster are also found in the eastern districts.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

EXTENT. By the final partition of Poland, European Russia now extends from the river Dniester to the Uralian mountains, that grand chain which naturally divides Europe from Asia; a length of about 1600 miles, and in breadth above 1000 English miles, being from 47° to 72° north latitude, and 23° to 65° east longitude. The extent is computed at about 1,200,000 square miles, with 17 inhabitants to each.

Even the European part of the Russian empire embraces many ancient kingdoms and states; but the chief name, that of Russia, shall only be considered.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The grand population of the European part of the Russian empire is well known to be Slavonic. The Slavons, form an extensive original race of mankind, radically distinct from the Goths on the one hand, who, as possessing the countries more to the west, must have preceded the Slavons in their passage from Asia into Europe; and equally distinguishable in language, person, and manners, from the Tatars, and other nations on the east. They are the Sarmatæ of the ancients, and were ever remarkable for personal elegance and strength.

CIVIL DIVISIONS. The principal sub-divisions of European Russia are into military governments; which, though they are often changing, and are seldom mentioned by any except native geographers, it has not been thought right entirely to omit.

To the North is the extensive government of Archangel, stretching from the borders of Sweden to the confines of Asia. South of this, along the Asiatic frontier are the governments of Vologda, Perm, Viatka Kazan, Simbirsk, Saratov, and the territory of the Don-Kozaks, each succeeding the other in a regular progress to the sea of Azof. The government of Ecaterinoslav, with the kingdom of Taurida, is the southernmost province, and contains Little Tatar, with the recent conquests from the Turks. On the west extend the acquisitions by the division of Poland. The governments of Riga, Revel, Petersburg, and Viborg, are situated along the Gulfs of Riga and Finland; and the government of Olonetz on the Swedish frontier completes the circuit. The midland provinces are the following; Novgorod, Tver, Kostroma, and Yaroslavl, for the most part to the North and east of the Volga; Polotsk, Pskov, Smolensk, Mosqua, Vladimir, Nizney-Novgorod, Moghilev, Calouga, Toula, Riazan, Tambov, Penza, Simbirsk, Orel, Sieverskov, Tchernigov, Kursk, Kiev, Charukov, Voronetz, principally to the west of the Volga.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The following appear to be the chief historical epochs of this mighty empire:

1. The foundation of the kingdom by Ruric, a Scandinavian chief, A. D. 862. His descendants held the sceptre above 700 years.

2. The naval expeditions of the Russians against Constantinople, in the tenth century.

3. In the same century the baptism of Olga the queen, and the subsequent conversion of the Russians to Christianity.

4. The invasion of the Tatars under Batu Khan in 1236, and the subsequent vassalage of Russia.

5. The abolition of the power of the Tatars by Ivan III. who died in 1505.

6. The reign of Ivan IV. surnamed Basilowitz, known to western historians by the style of the tyrant John Basilides.

7. The death of the Czar Feodor in 1508, with whom expired the long progeny of Ruric. Several impostors afterwards appeared, under the name of Demetrius, the murdered brother of this sovereign.

8. The accession of the dynasty of Romanow, 1613, in the person of Michael Feodorowitz, sprung in the female

line from Ivan IV. He was followed by his son Alexis, father of Peter the Great.

9. The reign of Peter I. has been justly considered as a most important epoch in Russian history; but on reading the annals of the preceding reigns from that of Ivan IV. it will be perceived that a part of our admiration for Peter arises from our inattention to his predecessors, and that the light which he diffused was far from being so sudden and grand as is commonly imagined.

10. The late reign of Catharine II. deserves to be commemorated among the most brilliant epochs in the Russian annals; nor must her personal crimes exclude her from the list of great and able sovereigns.

ANTIQUITIES. Of ancient monuments Russia cannot be supposed to afford great variety. Sometimes the tombs of their pagan ancestors are discovered, containing weapons and ornaments. The catacombs at Kiow were perhaps formed in the Pagan period, though they be now replete with marks of Christianity. They are labyrinths of considerable extent, dug through a mass of hardened clay, but they do not seem to contain the bodies of the monarchs.

RELIGION. The religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, of which, since the fall of the Byzantine empire, this state may be considered as the chief source and power.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Russia appears to have been always despotic, there being no legislative power distinct from that of the sovereign. What is called the senate is only the supreme court of judicature. The whole frame of the government may be pronounced to be military; and nobility itself is only virtually estimated by rank in the army. The first Russian code dates from the reign of Ivan IV. and the late empress had the merit of drawing up a new code with her own hands.

POPULATION. The population of Russia is so diffuse, and spread over so wide an extent of territory, that very opposite opinions have been entertained concerning it.

The following account, according to Mr. Tooke, presents the whole population of the empire in 1799:

By the revision of 1783 there were in the governments, computing the female sex as equal to the male, of registered persons,	}	25,677,000
--	---	------------

The amount of the Kozaks of the Don and the Euxine,	} 220,000
For the numbered tribes and classes, at the time of the fourth revision,	} 1,500,000
Consequently the Russian empire, in the year 1783, might have inhabitants amounting altogether to	} 27,397,000
Natural increase since 1783,	3,000,000
The new acquisitions since the year 1783, contain, according to a legitimated statement	} 5,755,000
Consequently we may admit, by the most moderate estimate, the population of the Russian empire at present to be	} 36,755,000

Of this population Mr. Tooke assigns only about three millions and a half to Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, so that we might, perhaps, allow even 33,000,000 for the population of European Russia.

ARMY. Mr. Tooke estimates the whole amount of the Russian troops at 600,000 : of which 500,000 may be esteemed effective.

NAVY. The Russian navy consists of several detached fleets. The chief fleet is that of the Baltic, which consists of about thirty-six ships of the line. That in the Euxine, or Black sea, at the harbours of Sevastopol and Kherson was computed at twelve ships of the line, but not of a high rate, as the Euxine affords no great depth of water : but there are many frigates, gallies, chebecks, and gun-boats. The fleet of gallies in the Baltic, in 1789, was estimated at 110.

REVENUES. The revenues of Russia are supposed to amount to about 50,000,000 of rubles ; which, valuing the ruble at four shillings, will be equal to 10,000,000*l.* sterling. The national debt is supposed to amount to little or nothing.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE, &c. With all these advantages it is no wonder that the political importance and relations of Russia are so preponderant in Europe and Asia. In Europe her recent acquisitions have contributed to render her more and more formidable. Poland has been devoured ; Denmark and Sweden may be considered as subject-allies ; and if the whole force of Russia were bent against either Austria or Prussia, it is hardly to be conceived that the shock could be withstood ; but it

would be more usefully employed against the ambitious strides of France. Her friendship is of peculiar importance to the British empire, in peace, as well as war.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. As the Russian empire comprises so many distinct races of men, the manners of course must be very various.

The Slavonic Russians, who constitute the chief mass and soul of this empire, are generally middle sized and vigorous: the tallness and grace of the Polish Slavons seem to arise from superior climate and soil. The general physiognomy consists of a small mouth, thin lips, white teeth, small eyes, a low forehead, the nose commonly small, and turned upwards, beard very bushy, hair generally reddish. The expression of the countenance is gravity, with good nature, or sagacity; the gait and gestures lively and impassioned. The Russian is extremely patient of hunger and thirst; and his cure for all diseases is the warm bath, or rather vapour bath, in which the heat is above 100° of Farenheit's thermometer. When a marriage is proposed, the lover, accompanied by a friend, goes to the house of the bride, and says to her mother, "shew us your merchandize, we have got money," an expression which is thought to refer to the ancient custom of buying a wife. The Russians shew great attention to their nurses, and are so hospitable that they offer to every stranger the *Khleh da sol*, or bread and salt, the symbol of food, lodging, and protection. In several instances the Russians form a curious junction of European and Asiatic manners; many of their ceremonies partake of Asiatic splendour; the great are fond of dwarfs; and some opulent ladies maintain female tellers of tales, whose occupation is to lull their mistresses asleep, by stories resembling those of the Arabian Nights.

LANGUAGE. The Russian language is extremely difficult to pronounce, and not less difficult to acquire, as it abounds with extraordinary sounds, and anomalies of every kind. The characters amount to no less than thirty-six; and the common sounds are sometimes expressed in the Greek characters, sometimes in characters quite unlike those of any other language. Among other singularities there is one letter to express the *sch*, and another the *ssch*, the latter a sound hardly pronounceable by any human mouth.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Education is little known or diffused in Russia, though the court have instituted academies for the instruction of officers and artists.

The university of Petersburg, founded by the late empress Catharine II. is a noble instance of munificence, and it is hoped will escape the fate of the colleges, founded at Moscow, by Peter the Great, which do not seem to have met with the deserved success.

CITIES AND TOWNS. In considering the chief cities and towns of Russia, Moscow, the ancient capital, attracts the first attention. This city dates from the year 1300, and prior to the pestilence of 1771, the houses in Moscow were computed at 12,538, and the population at not less than 200,000. Moscow is built in the Asiatic manner, in which cities cover a vast space of ground. Petersburg, the imperial residence, is said to contain 170,000 inhabitants; and is the well known, but surprising erection of the last century. It stands in a marshy situation on the river Neva, the houses being chiefly of wood. The stone buildings are few; and Petersburg is more distinguished by its fame, than by its appearance or opulence. The noblest public works are the quays built of perpetual granite.

Astracan is supposed to stand next to Petersburgh in population. This city, near the mouth of the vast river Volga, was the capital of the Tatar kingdom of Capshak; but the churches are chiefly of brick, and the houses of wood. The population is computed at 70,000. Cronstadt, and Kollonna, are supposed each to contain about 60,000 inhabitants. Cherson, and Caffa, are said each to contain 20,000; while 30,000 are ascribed to Tula, and 27,000 to Riga, a city of considerable trade and consequence.

INLAND NAVIGATION. The inland navigation of Russia deserves more attention. Among other laudable improvements, Peter the Great formed the design of establishing an intercourse by water between Petersburgh and Persia, by the Caspian sea, the Volga, the Mesta, and the lake of Novgorod, &c. but this scheme failed by the ignorance of the engineers. During the long reign of the late empress many canals were accomplished, or at least received such improvements that the chief honour must be ascribed to her administration. The celebrated canal of Vishnei Voloshok was in some shape completed by Peter, so as to form a communication between Astracan and Pe-

tersburg. The navigation is performed according to the season of the year, in from a fortnight to a month, and it is supposed that near 4000 vessels pass annually.

The canal of Ladoga, extends from the river Volk to the Neva, a space of $67\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and communicates with the former canal. By these two important canals constant intercourse is maintained between the northern and southern extremities of the empire. Another canal leads from Moscow to the river Don, forming a communication with the Euxine ; and the canal of Cronstradt forms a fourth.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. By these means the inland trade of Russia has attained considerable prosperity : and the value of her exports and imports have been long upon the increase. Several manufactures are conducted with considerable spirit. That of isinglass, and kaviar are in a flourishing state. The manufactories of oil and soap are also considerable ; and Petersburg exports great quantities of candles, besides tallow, which abounds in an empire so well replenished with pasturage. Salt-petre is an imperial traffic, and some sugar is refined at Petersburg. There are several manufactures of paper and tobacco, linen, cotton, and silk : leather has long been a staple commodity.

Russia produces vast quantities of wax. Iron founderies abound ; and in the northern government of Olonetz is a grand foundery of cannon.

Russia is supposed to export by the Baltic grain annually to the value of 170,000*l.* and hemp and flax, raw, and manufactured to the amount of a million and a half sterling.

The Commerce of the Caspian sea is computed at 1,000,000 of rubles, or 200,000*l.* That of the Euxine is not above one-third of this value. That with China about 2,000,000 of rubles. Russia exchanges her precious Siberian furs for tea, silk, and porcelain ; and her internal commerce is very considerable.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Russia in Europe, as may be expected in such a diversity of latitudes, presents almost every variety from that of Lapland, to that of Italy : for the newly acquired province of Taurida may be compared with Italy in climate and soil.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil is of course also extremely diverse. The most fertile is that between the Don and the Volga, from Voronetz to Simbirsk, consisting of a black mould, strongly impregnated with salt-

petre ; that is, a soil formed from successive layers of vegetable remains. In Livonia and Esthonia the medial returns of harvest are eight or ten fold ; and the latter is generally the produce of the rich plains near the Don, where the fields are never manured, but on the contrary are apt to swell the corn into too much luxuriance. Pasturage is so abundant that the meadows are little regarded, and the artificial production of grasses is scarcely known.

In general however agriculture is treated with great negligence, yet the harvests are abundant. In the north rye is most generally cultivated ; but in the middle and the southern regions wheat ; in the government of Ekatarinoslav the Arnautan wheat is beautiful, the flour yellowish, the return commonly fifteen fold ; nor is Turkish wheat or maize, unknown in Taurida. Barley is a general produce, and is converted into meal, as well as oats, of which a kind of porridge is composed. Millet is also widely diffused. Rice succeeds well in the vicinity of Kislear. Hemp and flax form great objects of agriculture. Tobacco also has been produced since the year 1763, chiefly from Turkish and Persian seed.

RIVERS. In enumerating the chief rivers of European Russia the first attention is due to the majestic Volga, which forms through a long space, the boundary between Asia and Europe. Its comparative course may be computed at about 1700 miles. This noble river having no cataracts, and few shoals, is navigable even to Twer.

Next to the Volga, on the west, is the Don, or Tanais, which rises from a lake in the government of Tulan, and falls into the sea of Azof, after a course of about 800 miles.

The Neiper, or ancient Borysthenes, rises in the government of Smolensk, about 150 miles to the south of the source of the Volga, and about 100 to the S. E. of that of the Duna, or Duina, which flows into the Baltic, by Riga ; and after a course of about 1000 miles through rich and fertile provinces, falls into the Euxine.

The Niester, or ancient Tyras, now forms the boundary between European Turkey and Russia, deriving its source from the north side of the Carpathian mountains, and falling into the Euxine at Akerman, after a course of about 600 miles.

The Dwina falls into the gulph of Archangel, after a considerable course of about 500 miles. The Onega closes the list of the chief rivers that flow into the Arctic ocean; for those of Olonetz, and of Russian Lapland, are of little consequence.

LAKES. The chief lakes of European Russia are situated in the N. W. division of the empire. There is a considerable lake in Russian Lapland, that of Imandra; to the south of which is the large lake of Onega, which is about 50 miles in length, by a medial breadth of about 30. To the west is the Ladoga, about 130 miles in length, by 70 in breadth, being one of the largest lakes in Europe. As it has many shoals, and is liable to sudden and violent tempests, Peter the Great opened a canal along its shores, from the Volk to the Neva.

On the S. W. we find the lake of Peypus, about 60 miles in length by 30 in breadth: and to the east is the lake Ilmen, on which stands the ancient city of Novgorod. The Beilo, or White lake, is so called from its bottom of white clay.

MOUNTAINS. European Russia is rather a plain country, though some parts of it be greatly elevated, such as that which sends forth the three rivers of Duna, Volga, and Nieper. This region which is passed in travelling from Petersburg to Moscow, is by some called the mountains of Valday; but it seems to be rather a high table land, surmounted with large sand hills, and interspersed with masses of red and grey granite.

The most important chains of mountains in European Russia are those of Olonetz in the furthest N. and those of Ural which separate Europe from Asia. The chain of Olonetz runs in a direction almost due N. for the space of 15° or about 900 G. miles. The most arctic part retains perpetual snow from the altitude of the climate.

The immense Uralian chain extends from about the 50th to near the 67th degree of N. latitude, or about 1000 G. miles in length, and has by the Russians been called *Semenoi Poias*, or the girdle of the world, an extravagant appellation, when we consider that the chain of the Andes extends near 5000 miles. Pauda, one of the highest mountains of the Uralian chain, is reported by Gmelin to be about 4512 feet above the level of the sea, an inconsiderable height when compared with Mont Blanc or Mont Rosa.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.

The vegetable kingdom of Russia has been but imperfectly explored. The Russian provinces N. of the Baltic, contain the same plants as those of Swedish and Norwegian Lapland, which will be hereafter described. Such an extent between the 50th and 60th deg. lat. abound principally in the common vegetables of the north of France and Germany. The trees of most use, and in greatest abundance are, the fir; the Scotch pine; the yew-leaved fir; and the larch; all of which mingled together, form the vast impenetrable forests, whence the rest of Europe is principally supplied with masts, deals, pitch, and tar. The other forest trees are, the elm, the lime, of the inner bark of which the Russian mats are made, and from whose blossoms the immense swarms of wild bees collect the chief part of their honey; the birch, the alder, the aspen, the greater maple, and sycamore; of the shrubs and humbler plants, those of most importance are the cloud-berry, the cran-berry, the bear-berry, the stone bramble; the fruit of all which, for want of better, is highly esteemed, and is either eaten fresh, or is preserved in snow during the winter. The Taurida abounds in the oak, both the common kind and the species with prickly cups; the black and the white poplars of unusual size, skirt along the margins of the streams; the ash, the horn beam, the nettle tree, occupy the upland pastures; and the elegant beech crowns the summits of the lime-stone ridges. Of the fruit-bearing shrubs and trees, besides the gooseberry, the red, the white, and black currant, which are dispersed in abundance through the woods, there are the almond and peach; the apricot and crab-cherry; the medlar; the walnut; the Tatarian, the black, and the white mulberry; the olive; the Chio turpentine tree; the hazle nut; the fig; the vine and the pomegranate.

The more peculiar animals of Russia are the white bear of Novaya Zemlia, and the souslik of the S. In the more northern parts are found the wolf, the lynx, the elk; nor is the camel unknown in the lower latitudes. The animals in the centre seem common to the rest of Europe. Among the more useful animals the horse has met with deserved attention, and the breed in many parts of the empire is large, strong, and beautiful.

In Taurida it is said that common Tatars may possess about 1000 sheep, while an opulent flock is computed at 50,000; those of the whole peninsula were supposed to amount to 7,000,000: nor is the rein-deer unknown in the furthest N. so that the empire may be said to extend from the latitude of the rein-deer to that of the camel.

MINERALOGY. The chief mines belonging to Russia are in the Asiatic part of the empire, but a few are situated in the European, in the mountains of Olonetz; and there was formerly a gold mine in that region near the river Vyg.

RUSSIAN ISLES.

The small isle of Cronstadt, in the gulph of Finland, was formerly called Retusavi, and is only remarkable for an excellent haven, strongly fortified, the chief station of the Russian fleet. In the Baltic, Russia also possesses the islands of Oesel and Dago.

Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land, uninhabited, is said to consist of five isles, but the channels between them are always filled with ice. Seals, walruses, arctic foxes, white bears, and a few rein-deer, constitute the zoology of this desert.

The remote and dreary islands of Spitzbergen having been taken possession of by the Russians, they may be here briefly described. The main land of Spitzbergen extends about 300 miles from the south cape, lat. $76^{\circ} 30'$ to Verlegan Hook, lat. $80^{\circ} 7'$. It is supposed to have been first discovered by the Dutch navigator Barentz in 1596. About the first of November the sun sets, and appears no more till the beginning of February; and after the beginning it never sets till August. The only shrubby plant that is seen is the Lapland willow, which rises to the height of two inches. Here are found polar bears, foxes, rein-deer, with walruses and seals.

AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.

THE dominions subject to the house of Austria embrace many ancient kingdoms and states, which, for the sake of perspicuity, are here brought under one point of view. The hereditary domains alone of this powerful house entitle it to rank among the chief European powers, being of wide extent, and great importance, and boasting a population of not less than 20,000,000.

In describing a sovereignty, thus composed of many ancient states, it may seem proper to pay the first and chief attention to that part which was the earliest important inheritance of the ruling family. On this plan the provinces that will here require particular observation are the arch-duchy of Austria; the kingdoms of Hungary, and Bohemia; the grand-duchy of Transylvania; the dominion towards the Adriatic, with the acquisitions of Venice and Dalmatia; and lastly that part of Poland which has fallen under the Austrian sceptre.

NAMES. The arch-duchy of Austria may be considered as belonging, in part to ancient Pannonia, the Vin-dobona of the Romans being the modern Vienna. But that half of Austria, which lies north of the Danube, was occupied by the ancient Quadi. The German name and division of Osterich, or the eastern kingdom, arose after Charlemagne had established the western empire, being a remnant of the sovereignty of what was called Eastern France: and after the failure of the Francic line became a marquise

feudatory to the dukes of Bavaria, till the emperor Frederic Barbarosa, in 1156, constituted it a duchy held immediately of the empire. Hungary, a part of which belonged to ancient Dacia, derives its modern appellation from the Ugurs, a nation of Turkomanic or Tataric origin: their language approaches to the Finnic dialect. Bohemia, or the habitation of the Boii, was a central province of Barbaric Germany, afterwards seized by a Slavonic tribe, whose chiefs were originally styled dukes of Bohemia. Transylvania, and the Buckovina are parts of the province of Dacia, founded by Trajan. Venice, as is well known, derives its appellation from the ancient Veneti of the opposite shore.

EXTENT. From the frontiers of Swisserland, to the utmost limits of Transylvania, the length of the Austrian dominions may be about 760 British miles; the breadth about 520. The acquisition of Venetian Dalmatia may probably soon be followed by the junction of those Turkish provinces, which divide that province from the Austrian domain. The square contents may be about 184,000 miles. Boetticher estimates the inhabitants at 108 to a square mile.

The principal sub-divisions of the Austrian dominions are,

1. The Circle of Austria. 2. The kingdom of Bohemia. 3. Moravia. 4. Part of Silesia. 5. Part of Bavaria. 6. Part of Swabia. 7. Hungary. 8. Transylvania. 9. Dalmatia. 10. Part of Poland. 11. The Venetian territories E. of the Adige, and the city of Venice.

Towards the E. the Austrian dominions border on those of Russia and Turkey, and to the N. on those of Prussia, Upper Saxony, Bavaria, and Swabia. On the utmost W. are Swisserland and the Italian states.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of these extensive regions is various, but chiefly Gothic and Slavonic. The Venetians, and adjacent Italians, may be considered as genuine descendants of the Cisalpine Gauls, and of the Roman colonies established among them. In ancient descent no genealogy can vie with that of several Venetian families, which can be traced by history and record to the eighth century.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. 1. The house of Austria is well known to have sprung from the humble counts of

Hapsburg. On a lofty eminence, crowned with beech, in the Canton of Berne, stands an ancient tower, the first seat of the house of Austria. In 1273, Rodolph of Hapsburg was called to the imperial throne, being at this time lord of the greater part of Swisserland; by the extinction of the powerful houses of Zaeringen, and Kyburg.

2. Another emperor of the house of Austria appeared in Albert, A. D. 1298; from whom the Swiss made their signal revolt in 1307. His son Frederic was obliged to yield the empire to Louis of Bavaria.

3. Albert II. duke of Austria, A. D. 1438, succeeded to three crowns, on the death of his father-in-law the emperor Sigismond; those of Hungary and Bohemia by inheritance, and that of the empire by unanimous election.

4. Maximilian having married the heiress of Burgundy, the Netherlands became subject to the house of Austria in 1477.

5. The noted bigotry of the house of Austria was not confined to the Spanish branch; for though Maximilian II. about 1570, had granted liberty of conscience even to the Protestants of Austria, yet those of Bohemia, and other parts, were afterwards so much oppressed, that the Protestant princes of Germany called in Gustaff Adolf, the celebrated Swedish monarch, to their assistance, and the war continued till 1648, when the famous treaty of Westphalia was signed, which has served as a basis for other diplomatic transactions.

6. The war with France was often re-kindled during the long reign of Leopold I. 1658, to 1705; and in 1683 the Turks were so successful as to lay siege to Vienna.

7. His son Joseph I. joined the allies against France, and shared in their success. He married the daughter of John Frederic duke of Hanover.

8. By the death of the emperor Charles VI. on the 20th October, 1740, without male issue, the house of Austria became extinct. The elector of Bavaria seized the kingdom of Bohemia, and was elected emperor in 1742, but died in 1745.

9. Francis of Lorrain, son of Leopold duke of Lorrain, having married Maria Theresa, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. succeeded to the Austrian dominions, which continued to be held by his descendants.

10. The reign of the emperor Joseph II. a beneficent but impolitic prince.

11. The obdurate and sanguinary contest with France, the events of which have broken the connection between Great Britain and the empire, and destroyed the ancient balance of Europe.

Having thus briefly marked the chief epochs of the Austrian power, the events of the subject kingdoms and states being of less importance, must be omitted.

Of the provinces towards the Adriatic the history is little memorable, except that of Venice, a recent acquisition. This ancient and remarkable city was founded in the fifth century by the Veneti of the opposite shore, who fled from the incursions of the barbarians. At first each isle was governed by a tribune, till the year 697, when the first doge was elected. In the ninth and tenth centuries the government of the doges became nearly hereditary; but in the eleventh the election again became open. Towards the close of the twelfth century the democratic form was succeeded by an election, and administration severely aristocratic, and well known by its singularity and stability. The Venetians having gradually extended their power along the Adriatic, in the year 1204, became masters of several Grecian provinces and islands; and after their contests with the Pisans, and Genoese, became the first commercial and maritime power in Europe, till the end of the fifteenth century, when the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope transferred the oriental traffic to the Portuguese. The authority of Venice declined with its commerce; and the republic, at length fell by trusting to French faith, which was never pledged but to deceive.

ANTIQUITIES. Vindobona, (Vienna) and the adjacent parts of Noricum and Pannonia, occasionally display Roman remains; but the ruins of the celebrated bridge of Trajan, over the Danube, belong to Turkey in Europe; it is supposed to have consisted of twenty arches, or rather vast piers of stone, originally supporting a wooden fabric of the length of more than 3,300 English feet. In Hungary, and other parts of the ancient province of Dacia, appear many relics of Roman power, as military roads, ruins, &c. Several castles, churches, and monasteries still remaining, attest the magnificence of the founders. The

cathedral church of St. Stephen, in Vienna, is a Gothic fabric of singular pomp, and minute decoration.

RELIGION. The preponderant religion of the Austrian dominions is the Roman Catholic, but attended with a considerable degree of toleration. Protestants of various sects are found in Bohemia, Moravia, Vienna, Transylvania, and Hungary. Vienna did not become a metropolitan see till the year 1722: the archbishop is a prince of the holy Roman empire.

GOVERNMENT. The form of government is an hereditary monarchy, approaching to absolute power. For though Hungary retain its ancient states, or rather an aristocratical senate, yet they cannot withstand the will of the sovereign. Even Austria has its states, consisting of four orders, clergy, peers, knights, burgesses; the assembly for lower Austria being held at Vienna, and that of the upper at Linz. But those local constitutions can little avail against the will of a powerful monarch, supported by a numerous army.

The laws vary according to the different provinces, almost every state having its peculiar code. In general the laws may be regarded as mild and salutary; and the Austrians in particular are a well regulated and contented people, while the Hungarians are often dissatisfied, and retain much of their ancient animosity against the Germans.

POPULATION. The general population of the Austrian dominions is computed at about 22,000,000; that of Hungary, Transylvania, and the Buckovina, being estimated at 7,880,000.

Of the other chief provinces, Bohemia is supposed to hold 2,806,000; and Moravia 1,256,000. The whole acquisitions in Poland contain 2,797,000; the Italian dominions probably two millions; while the archduchy of Austria is computed at 1,820,000.

ARMY. The army is computed by Boetticher at 365,455 men, in 136 regiments, of which 46 are Germans, and only eleven Hungarian.

REVENUE. The revenue is computed at more than 10,000,000*l.* sterling; to which Austria contributes about 3,000,000*l.* and Hungary a little more than a million and a half. This revenue used to exceed the expences.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. Setting aside the consideration of his influence, as emperor

over the German states, the monarch may be regarded as an equal rival of France, and only inferior to the preponderance of Russia; and this power has occasioned a determined rivalry between him and France. There are also causes of confirmed jealousy between Austria and Prussia; and it is doubtful if even an invasion from Russia would compel them to unite in a defensive alliance. Amidst so many enmities, and the necessary jealousy of Russian power, it would be difficult to point out any state on the continent with which Austria could enter into a strict and lasting alliance. The most natural and constant may be that with England, whose maritime power might inflict deep wounds upon their common enemy. By cultivating a steady friendship with Great Britain the emperor may more easily extend his commerce and shipping in the Adriatic and Mediterranean which would be a considerable step to becoming a maritime power, long the object of his ambition; and in case of a partition of European Turkey, which may not be very distant, with her aid he may possess himself of the Morea, and the isle of Candy, both of which were formerly under the dominion of Venice. This acquisition would not only operate as a check on the encroachments of Russia, in the Black Sea, but frustrate the designs of France on Egypt and the Levant.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. Various are the manners and customs of the numerous kingdoms and provinces subject to the house of Austria. In Austria proper the people are much at their ease; and the farmers, and even peasantry, little inferior to those of England. Travellers have remarked the abundance of provisions at Vienna, and the consequent daily luxury of food, accompanied with great variety of wines. The Austrian manners are cold, but civil; the women elegant, but devoid of mental accomplishments. The youth of rank are commonly ignorant, and of course haughty. An Austrian nobleman or gentleman is never seen to read, and hence polite literature is almost unknown and uncultivated. In consequence of this ignorance the language remains unpolished; and the Austrian speech is one of the meanest dialects of the German, so that polite people are constrained to use French. The lower orders are, however, little addicted to crimes or vices, and punishments are rare; robberies are seldom committed, and murder little known. When capital punish-

ment becomes unavoidable, it is administered with great solemnity, and accompanied with public prayers, an example worthy of universal imitation.

The Hungarians remain to be a spirited people, and affect to despise their masters. Their dress is well known to be peculiar, and is copied by the troops called hussars. This dress, consisting of a tight vest, mantle, and furred cap, is graceful; and the whiskers add a military ferocity to the appearance.

LANGUAGE. The languages spoken in these dominions are various; the German by the ruling nation, the Slavonic by the Poles, part of the Hungarians, the Dalmatians, the Bohemians, and the Moravians, and lastly the Finnic by the Hungarians in part. The Italian of course prevails in the states of Italy that are subject to Austria: and the Tyrolese, &c. use a mixture of Italian and German.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. The empress Theresa instituted schools for the education of children, but none for the education of teachers. Hence the children are taught metaphysics before they know Latin; and a blind veneration for the monks forms one of the first exertions of nascent reason.

The universities, like those in other catholic countries, little promote the progress of solid knowledge. The sciences taught with the greatest care are precisely those which are of the smallest utility. The university of Vienna has, since the year 1752, been somewhat improved. It was founded in 1237, and that of Prague in 1347; that of Inspruck only dates from 1677, and Gratz from 1585. Hungary chiefly boasts of Buda, though the Jesuits instituted academies at Raab, and Caschau. That of Buda by the Germans called Offen, possesses an income of about 20,000*l.* sterling, only 4000 of which are applied to pay the salaries of the professors. There is a Calvinist college or university at Debretzen: and the bishop of Erlau has recently established a splendid university at that city.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Vienna, the chief city of the Austrian dominions, lies on the S. or rather W. side of the Danube, in a fertile plain watered by a branch of that river. The Danube is here very wide, and contains several woody isles: it is founded on the site of the ancient Vindobona; but was of little note till the twelfth century, when it became the residence of the dukes of Austria, and was fortified in the manner of that age. The manufactures are

little remarkable, though some inland commerce be transacted on the noble stream of the Danube. The number of inhabitants is computed at 254,000. The suburbs are far more extensive than the city, standing at a considerable distance from the walls. The houses are generally of brick covered with stucco, in a more durable manner than commonly practised in England; the finest sand being chosen, and the lime, after having been slacked, remaining for a twelvemonth, covered with sand and boards, before it be applied to the intended use. The chief edifices are the metropolitan church of St. Stephen, the imperial palace, library, and arsenal, the house of assembly for the states of lower Austria, the council-house, the university, and some monasteries. Provisions of all kinds abound in Vienna, particularly wild boars, venison, and game; many small birds rejected by us being included among the latter. Livers of geese are esteemed a peculiar delicacy; nor are tortoises, frogs, and snails rejected.

Next in importance to Vienna was Milan, the inhabitants of which were computed at more than 130,000. The loss of Milan will be richly recompensed by the acquisition of Venice, supposed to contain 200,000 souls. The latter celebrated city, singularly situated in the lagunes, or shallows of the Adriatic sea, and secured in a great measure from the fury of the waves by exterior shoals, which form a natural fortification on that side, has been frequently described.

The honour of the third city in the Austrian dominions must be claimed by Prague, the population being estimated at 80,000. This metropolis of Bohemia stands on both sides of the river Mulda, over which there is a noble bridge of stone, founded in 1357. The houses are of stone, and commonly three stories in height; and about a sixth part of the population consists of Jews.

Next, though at a great distance, stands Gratz, the capital of Stiria, supposed to hold 35,000 souls. This city stands on the west side of the river Muchr, joined by a bridge to an extensive suburb on the opposite bank.

Presburg, the capital of Hungary, only contains about 27,000 inhabitants; it is beautifully situated on the Danube, towards the western extremity of Hungary, being only about 35 British miles to the east of Vienna. About one

quarter of the inhabitants are Lutherans, who are so opulent as to pay about one half the taxes.

Buda, by the Germans called Offen, the ancient metropolis of Hungary, with the city of Pesth, which stands on the opposite side of the Danube, over which there is a bridge of boats, may be computed at 34,000. The chief public and private buildings are in Pesth, and within the fortress: the royal palace in particular is a large and stately edifice.

Lastly Trieste, which is reckoned at 18,000 deserves more particular attention, having been for a long time the only sea-port belonging to Austria. It is situated on a gulph of the Adriatic, and rises on an ascent which is crowned by a castle. The shipping is secured by a wall, extending from the Lazaretto to the isle of Zuka; and the harbour was declared free by the empress Theresa. The neighbourhood produces excellent wines.

EDIFICES. The chief public edifices are at Vienna, Buda, and Pesth, to which may now be added Venice; but there are many splendid churches and monasteries in the several regions of the Austrian domination. Many of the Hungarian nobility, who have vast estates, possess castles of corresponding magnificence.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. Vienna perhaps equals any other of the Austrian cities in manufactures, which are chiefly of silk, gold and silver lace, cloths, stuffs, stockings, linen, mirrors, porcelain: with silver plate, and several articles in brass. Bohemia is celebrated for beautiful glass and paper. But the commerce of the Austrian dominions chiefly depends upon their native opulence: Austria proper and the southern provinces producing abundance of horses and cattle, corn, flax, saffron, and various wines, with several metals, particularly quicksilver from the mines of Idria. Bohemia and Moravia are also rich in oxen and sheep, corn, flax, and hemp; in which they are rivalled by the dismembered provinces of Poland. Hungary presents numerous herds of cattle; and the more favoured parts of that country produce corn, rice, the rich wines of Tokay, and tobacco of an exquisite flavour, with great and celebrated mines of various metals and minerals. Till the acquisition of Venice, the chief exports were from the port of Trieste, consisting of quicksilver and other metals, with wines and various native products:

the various produce of the rich kingdom of Hungary, being chiefly conveyed to the other Austrian provinces.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Austria proper is commonly mild and salubrious, though sometimes exposed to violent winds, and the southern provinces in general enjoy a delightful temperature, if the mountainous parts be excepted. The more northern regions of Bohemia and Moravia, with the late acquisitions in Poland, can likewise boast the maturity of the grape, and of gentle and favourable weather. The numerous lakes and morasses of Hungary, and the prodigious plains, are supposed to render the air damp and unwholesome, the cold of the night rivalling the heat of the day; but the blasts from the Carpathian mountains seem in some measure to remedy these evils, the inhabitants being rather remarkable for health and vigour.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil is upon the whole extremely fertile and productive, in spite of the neglect of industry, which has permitted many parts of Hungary, and of the Polish provinces, to pass into wide forests and marshes. The state of agriculture in Moravia is superior to the rest, being improved by Flemish farmers.

RIVERS. In enumerating the chief rivers which pervade the Austrian dominions, the Danube commands the first attention. This magnificent stream rises in Swabia. Though the course be occasionally impeded by small falls and whirlpools, yet it is navigable through a prodigious extent, and after watering Swabia, Bavaria, Austria proper, Hungary, and Turkey in Europe, it joins the Euxine, or Black sea, after a circuit of about 1300 British miles, about one half of its progress being through the territories of Austria.

Next in consequence is the Tiess, which arising from the Carpathian mountains, and bending towards the west, receives many tributary streams from that Alpine chain; and afterwards turning to the S. falls into the Danube, after a course of about 420 miles. At Belgrade the Danube receives the Sau, or Save, which forms a boundary between Austria and Turkey. That of the Drau or Drave extends to about 350 miles, from its source in the eastern mountains of Tyrol, till it joins the Danube below Esseg.

The Inn rises in the E. of Swisserland, from the mountain of Maloggia in the Grisons, being a point of partition

dividing the waters which run towards the Black sea, from those which flow into the Adriatic. This powerful river is more gentle near its source, than the other Alpine streams, but soon becomes more precipitous; and joins the Danube at Passau with a weight of water nearly equal to that stream, after a course of about 250 miles.

LAKES. The lakes in the Austrian dominions are numerous, and some of them of considerable size. Carinthia contains a large central lake not far from Clagenfurt; and Carniola another, the Cirknitz See. Hungary contains many morasses, and lakes; the most important of the latter being that of Platte, or the Platten See, extending about forty-five British miles in length, by eight in breadth, and abounding with fish. The Neufidler lake, about thirty miles S. E. of Vienna, is about thirteen miles in length by four in breadth.

MOUNTAINS. Beginning at the western extremities, the Rhætian or Tyrolese Alps claim our first attention. These chiefly proceed in a direction from the S. W. to the N. E. or from the Valteline to the archbishopric of Salzburg. The Brenner mountains, for such is the modern name of the Rhætian Alps, rival the grand Alps of Swisserland in numerous glaciers; and like other grand chains present exterior barriers, that on the N. being distinguished by the name of Spitz, while that on the S. is termed Vedretta. On leaving Italy there is almost a gradual ascent, from Trent to the highest summit. The greatest elevations arise to the N. of Sterzing, whence streams proceed towards the river Inn on the N. and the Adige on the S. and the Eisac descends, a precipitous torrent, amidst masses of granite, petrosilex, and marble. The glacier most easy of access is that of Stuben; it is 4,692 feet above the level of the sea, and presents the usual phænomena of such scenes, with beautiful pyramids of azure, which in sunshine reflect a blaze of light.

Towards the W. and N. of Inspruck are several detached mountains, covered with constant snow. Near the glaciers are found rock crystals of various colours, and the inferior ranges of the Tyrolese mountains contain mines of silver, copper, lead, mercury, iron, alum, and sulphur.

Upper Austria, or the western part of this province, contains many considerable mountains, the highest of which is in the maps called Priel. There are many other groups

of mountains in the Austrian territories worthy of notice, which it would exceed our limits to describe.

However we must not omit the Carpathian mountains, that grand and extensive chain which bounds Hungary on the N. and E. having been celebrated from all antiquity. By the Germans they are styled the mountains of Krapak, probably the original name, which was softened by the Roman enunciation. This enormous ridge extends in a semicircular form from the mountain of Javornik S. of Silesia towards the N. W. But at the mountain of Trojaska, the most northern summit, it bends to the S. E. to the confines of the Buckovina, where it sends forth two branches, one to the E. another to the W. of Transylvania; which is also divided from Walachia by a branch running S. W. and N. E. The whole circuit may be about 500 miles. The highest summits of these mountains, according to Dr. Townson, do not exceed 8 or 9000 feet, and they are for the most part composed of granite and primitive limestone.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The forests of Germany have been famous from the earliest antiquity. The Sylva Hercynia which extended from the Rhine to Sarmatia, from Cologne to Poland, are known to every boy who has read the ancient classics. Though by the progress of civilization and improvement many of these forests have been removed, there are still considerable remains in the Black forest of Swabia, and other uncultivated tracts.—The principal native trees are the elm; the wych elm; lime tree; birch, and alder; common and prickly-cupped oak; sumach; walnut; chesnut and beech; hornbeam; black and white poplar and aspen; sycamore and maple; the ash; the pine, the fir, the yew-leaved fir, and the larch. All the common fruit trees of Europe are cultivated in an extensive manner.

The domestic animals in the Austrian dominions are commonly excellent, particularly the cattle. Many of the native horses run wild, and are sold in great numbers at the fairs, before they have suffered any subjection. The breed of cattle is mostly of a singular colour, a slaty blue; and the Hungarian sheep resemble the Walachian in their long erect spiral horns, and pendant hairy fleece. In the western parts of the Austrian sovereignty, the animals do

not seem to be distinguished from those of other parts of Germany.

The large breed of wild cattle called Urus or Bison, is said to be found in the Carpathian forests, as well as in those of Lithuania and Caucasus. Among the wild quadrupeds, may also be named the bear, the boar, the wolf, the chamois, the marmot, and the beaver. The Danube boasts of some fishes seldom found in other rivers, among which is a small and delicate sort of salmon.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of the Austrian dominions is by far the most various and interesting of any in Europe. There is scarcely a province of this extensive territory, which cannot boast of advantages in the mineral kingdom; even the acquisitions in Poland contain one of the most remarkable mines in Europe, the saline excavations of Wielitska. The mines of Bohemia have been celebrated from ancient times. Silver is found at Kuttenberg, and at Joachinsthal, on the western frontiers towards Saxony; and gold has been discovered at Keonstock. One of the most singular products of this province is tin, which is found at Zinwald (that is the tin forest), and other western districts of Bohemia; where is also found, at Dreyhacken, a mine of very pure copper. Lead occurs at Bleystadt, in the same quarter. The garnets of Bohemia are among the most beautiful of the kind. The women wash the clay in which the garnets are found; after which they are sifted and arranged according to size; and sold by the pound weight from about three to ten shillings. The iron of Stiria supplies the finest steel, and great quantities are imported into England: there are considerable lead mines near Pegau on the river Mohr, yielding about 5000 tons yearly. Stiria also affords coal at different places.

The quicksilver mines of Idra are celebrated in natural history, poetry, and romance. They were discovered in the year 1499; and the hill of Vogelberg has annually yielded more than 300,000 pounds weight of mercury.

But the principal mines in the Austrian dominions are situated in the eastern provinces of Hungary and Transylvania. About 40 miles to the S. of the Carpathian hills are the gold mines of Kremnitz: and 20 English miles further to the S. the silver mines of Chemnitz: cities which have arisen solely from these labours, and thence called min-

ing towns. Chemnitz is esteemed the principal. The academy here instituted for the study of mineralogy is highly respectable, and only rivalled by that of Freyberg in Saxony. Hungary contains mines of copper at Schmelnitz and Herrengrund; of very rich antimony at Rosenau; and in different parts of coal, salt, and alum. But a mineral peculiar to Hungary, and as yet discovered in no other region of the globe, is the opal, a gem preferred to all others by the oriental nations.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. Among the natural curiosities may be named the grand Alpine scenes of Tyrol, the glaciers and peaks of the Brenner. In Carniola near Adlesburg, is said to be a grotto of prodigious extent displaying spaces sufficient for the erection of villages, and containing natural amphitheatres, bridges, &c. But the chief natural curiosity of Carniola is the lake of Cirknitz, called by Dr. Brown the Zirchnitzer See. That traveller informs us that it is about two German, or more than eight English miles in length, by four of the latter in breadth. In the month of June the water descends under ground, through many apertures in the bottom; and in September it reascends with considerable force; thus yielding rich pasture in summer, while in winter it abounds with fish.

PRUSSIA.

THIS kingdom which only commenced with the eighteenth century, has by gradual accessions, not the most honourable, become so extensive, as to rank among the first powers of Europe.

The name of the country originates, according to some authors, from the Pruzzi, a Slavonic tribe, its ancient inhabitants.

EXTENT. Exclusive of small detached territories, the kingdom of Prussia now extends from Hornburg and the river Oker in the country of Halberstadt, the furthest western connected district, to the river Memel, or about 600 miles. The breadth, from the southern limit of Silesia to Dantzick, exceeds 300 miles. On the east and south, Prussia now borders on the dominions of Russia and Austria, and the western limits adjoin to the bishopric of Hildesheim. Before the recent acquisitions in Poland the number of Prussian subjects was only computed at 5,621,500, in a total extent of 56,414 square miles, that is about 99 to the square mile. At present they amount to above eight millions, and the kingdom is divided into 22 provinces.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. As the family which now rules those extensive domains was originally the electoral house of Brandenburg, it will be proper in this place to trace the progress of its power.

1. The emperor Charles IV. in 1373, assigned Brandenburg to his second son Sigismund, who in 1415, being then emperor of Germany, sold this margraviate and electorate to Frederick burgrave of Nuremburg, for 400,000 ducats. This prince was the ancestor of the present reigning race.

2. Joachin II. elector of Brandenburg, embraced the Lutheran religion in 1539, which has since been the ruling system of the state.

3. John Sigismond becomes duke of Prussia in 1618.

4. Frederic William, surnamed the great elector, succeeded his father in 1640; and in 1656 compelled the king of Poland to declare Prussia an independent state, it having formerly been held of the Polish sovereigns. He was succeeded in 1688, by his son.

5. Frederic III. who, supporting the emperor in the contest for the Spanish succession, was by him declared king of Prussia: under which title he was proclaimed at Königsberg, on the 18th day of January, 1701, he himself placing the crown upon his head.

6. Frederic William II. ascended the throne in 1713. But he was chiefly remarkable as the father of that great prince Frederic II. who ascended the throne in 1740, and died in 1786, after a long and glorious reign; the most memorable and lasting event of which was the acquisition of Silesia from the house of Austria in 1742.

7. The short reign of his nephew is known to every reader. The reign of his son, the present monarch, has hitherto been distinguished by a mysterious coalition with the French republic.

ANTIQUITIES. Some Slavonic idols, cast in bronze, constitute almost the only pagan antiquities; and the castles, and churches erected after the introduction of the Christian religion, have few singularities to attract particular attention. The Polish coinage begins about the twelfth century, and is upon the German model.

RELIGION. The ruling religion of Prussia is the Protestant, under its two chief divisions of Lutheran and Calvinistic. But after the recent acquisitions in Poland it would seem that the greater number of the inhabitants must be Roman Catholic. The universal toleration which has been wisely embraced by the Prussian monarchs, has had its usual effect of abating theological enmity, and the different sects seem to live in perfect concord.

GOVERNMENT, &c. As no vestige of any senate or delegates from the people is known in this kingdom, it must be pronounced an absolute government; but the spirit and good sense of the nation unite with the wisdom and mildness of successive monarchs, to render the sovereignty

as conciliatory, and perhaps more beneficent, than if clogged with a popular senate. The late great monarch reformed many abuses in the laws; but it cannot be disguised that the tenor of his government was too military and despotic.

ARMY. The army is supposed to amount to about 237,000, including about 40,000 cavalry. The tactics of the late able sovereign conferred distinguished reputation on the Prussian battalions, but they are now supposed not to exceed the Austrian.

REVENUES. Before the addition of Polish territory the revenue was estimated at 3,880,000*l.* sterling; and the expence of the army at 2,275,000*l.* Frederic II. laudably expended about half a million sterling yearly, in the improvement of his dominions. The entire revenue of Poland was not computed to exceed 439,546*l.* sterling. If we even suppose half of this added to the Prussian revenue, the result would not be important; Prussia, however, has no national debt.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. The political importance and relations of this kingdom have impressed the European history of this century with new and distinct features. An alliance with Prussia would be indeed of some importance to the Turkish empire; nor can it be the interest of Prussia to permit Russia to extend her aggrandizements.

In regard to the other chief powers of Europe, England, France, Russia and Austria, it cannot be disguised that there is a natural connexion between Prussia and France, as both are, or affect to be jealous of the Austrian power, and both are disposed to dismember Europe. But it would be wisdom in Prussia by uniting with Austria, Denmark and Sweden, to raise a power sufficient at once, to check the colossal strides of France and Russia.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of a country composed of such various inhabitants, must of course be discordant. The Saxons are a lively and contented people; the Prussians appear dull and gloomy. As to the Poles, they seem full of life and action, but their features and general appearance are rather Asiatic than European. "Men of all ranks generally wear whiskers, and shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown. The dress of the higher orders, both

men and women, is commonly elegant. That of the gentlemen is a waistcoat with sleeves, over which they wear an upper robe of a different colour, which reaches down below the knee, and is fastened round the waist with a sash or girdle; the sleeves of this upper garment are, in warm weather tied behind their shoulders; a sabre is a necessary part of their dress as a mark of nobility. In summer the robe, &c. is of silk, in winter of cloth, velvet, or stuff edged with fur. They wear fur caps or bonnets, and buskins of yellow leather, the heels of which are plated with iron or steel. The dress of the ladies is a simple polonaise or long robe, edged with fur."

LANGUAGE. The ruling language of Prussia is the German, which it is probable may in time supplant the Polish, in those parts which are subject to Prussia and Austria.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. The state of education in this country seems to be equally neglected as in the far greater part of Europe.

There are however several universities, such as that of Frankfort on the Oder, founded by Joachim elector of Brandenburg in the year 1516. Königsberg, in Prussia was founded in 1544.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Among the cities of Prussia we can mention only a few of the chief. Berlin, situated on the banks of the river Spree, is a regularly fortified city. It was founded in the twelfth century, by a colony from the Netherlands, and contains 142,000 inhabitants, being about four miles and a half long and three wide; but within this inclosure are many gardens, and sometimes even fields; the number of houses is 6950. The city is more remarkable for the elegance of the buildings than for its wealth or industry, many beautiful houses being let in stories to mechanics. Next to Berlin may be mentioned Königsberg, of which the population is computed at about 52,000. This city was founded in the thirteenth century, and is well fortified. It maintains a considerable trade by the river Pregel, which flows into the gulph of Dantzick.

Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, has been long celebrated as one of the most beautiful cities in Germany. It is of uncertain antiquity, but was destroyed by the Tatars in the thirteenth century. The population is at least equal to that of Königsberg; and it has several manufactures, the

linens of Silesia being particularly celebrated. The ruling religion is that of Luther.

Among chief cities of Prussia must not be forgotten Warsaw, the former capital of Poland ; and Dantzick, an independent city of ancient fame. Warsaw stands partly in a plain, partly on a gentle ascent rising from the Vistula, but the appearance is melancholy, from the general poverty of Poland under its former unhappy government. The population was computed at 70,000, including the unfortunate suburb of Praga.

Dantzick contains about 36,000 inhabitants, and was known as a commercial town even from the tenth century. It was considered as the chief city of the Hanseatic league, and was enlarged and adorned by the knights of the Teutonic order. It must still be considered as the chief staple for the exportation of the corn and the other products of Poland ; but its commerce has been for some time on the decline.

Magdeburg is supposed to hold about 26,000 souls, and is strongly fortified with a citadel on an isle in the Elbe. This city dates its origin from the time of Charlemagne ; and can boast of elegant streets and flourishing manufactures. The Imperialists taking it by storm in 1631, a dreadful slaughter ensued, the inhabitants who perished being computed at about 10,000.

EDIFICES. Some of the most splendid edifices of this country adorn Berlin the capital, such as the palace and the theatre. The city itself is almost entirely built with brick, though the fronts of the houses are disguised with stucco. The palace at Potsdam deserves superior applause ; and on an eminence near the city stands the royal villa of Sans Souci, which however can claim no grandeur of external architecture. In general this kingdom yields even to Russia in respect to public edifices.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. If we except the linens of Silesia, the manufactures of the Prussian dominions are of small importance. Yet they afford for home consumption, glass, iron, brass, paper, and woollen cloth ; and Frederic II. introduced a small manufacture of silk. Even the exports of Dantzick consist almost entirely of timber, corn, tallow, and similar articles.

If we except the ancient staple of grain so abundant in the level plains of Poland, the commerce of Prussia is com-

paratively of little consequence. Amber is by nature constituted a monopoly of the country, but fashion has rendered this branch of commerce insignificant. Yet among the considerable exports may be named excellent timber of all kinds, skins, leather, flax, and hemp ; nor must the linens of Silesia be passed in silence, many of which are sent into Holland, and sold under the name of Dutch manufacture. In return Prussia receives wine, and other products of more southern and favoured countries.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of the Prussian dominions is, upon the whole, cold and moist. Brandenburg and Pomerania may be regarded as more free from humidity than Prussia proper, which has about eight months of winter, the autumns being often deluged with rain. The northern part of Poland abounds with forests and marshes, which cannot be supposed to render the air salubrious. The lower parts of Silesia are regarded as the most healthy and fertile provinces of the monarchy : but the southern and western parts of the duchy, bordering on elevated mountains, long covered with snow, are exposed even in summer to severe freezing gales.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil of Brandenburg is meagre, and even the space between Berlin and Potsdam resembles a wilderness ; but that of Prussian Poland is loamy and fertile. The northern extremity of Silesia resembles Brandenburg, yet this province is in general extremely productive, and abounds in fruits and culinary vegetables.

Agricultural improvements are little known, and Brandenburg chiefly produces buck wheat and turnips, with scanty crops of rye ; but Prussia proper, and the Polish provinces display every kind of grain, and esculent plant, that can flourish under such a latitude ; and among the productions of Silesia must be classed maize, and even vines, but the wine is of inferior quality.

RIVERS. Among the chief rivers of the Prussian dominions may be first mentioned the Elbe, which rises in the S. of Bohemia, and pervades the duchy of Magdeburg. The Spree which passes by Berlin, falls into the Havel, a tributary of the Elbe. The Oder may be regarded as a river entirely Prussian : it rises in the mountains of Moravia, and after watering Silesia, Brandenburg, and Pomerania, joins the Baltic, after a course of about 350 miles.

Next appears another noble stream, the Vistula, which rising in the Carpathian mountains, passes Warsaw, and joins the sea near Dantzick, after a circuit of about 450 miles.

LAKES. The lakes in the Prussian dominions are numerous, especially in the eastern part, where among others may be mentioned the Spelding See, which, with its creeks, extends more than twenty British miles in every direction. That region contains many other lakes, which supply the sources of the river Pregel. And at their estuaries the rivers Oder, Vistula, and Memel, present singular inland sheets of water, in the German language called *Haffs*.

MOUNTAINS. The only mountains in the Prussian dominions are those of Silesia, which may be regarded as a northern branch of the Carpathian chain. This branch extends from Jablunka S. E. to Friedberg in upper Lusatia, N. W. near 200 British miles in length, and is called Sude-tische Gebirge, or the Sudetic mountains. In the north-western parts of Silesia are also detached mountains of considerable height, as the Spitzberg and Gratzberg.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Among the indigenous vegetables of the Prussian dominions there do not seem to be any which have not already been sufficiently noticed in the preceding accounts of Britain and Austria. Tobacco, originally a native of America, and probably also of the east, having been long cultivated in Prussia, has at length established itself in the soil, and is found in the ploughed fields and hedges, as a common weed.

The breeds of horses and cattle seem not to have impressed travellers with any distinction from those of the adjacent countries; and few parts are calculated for excellent breeds of sheep. The urus, or large and ferocious wild cattle of Lithuania, have also appeared in Prussia proper, but the race seems nearly extinct. One of its chief haunts was the forest of Masavia not far from Warsaw.

MINERALS. The sand and plains of Prussia contain but few hidden treasures. There are some mines of copper and lead as well as considerable founderies of iron in Silesia. Agates, jaspers, and rock crystal, are also found in the Silesian mountains. Coal, a more useful mineral,

occurs in various parts of Silesia, and the level districts sometimes offer good peat moors.

But the most distinguished and peculiar mineral production of Prussia is amber, which is chiefly found on the Samland shore of the Baltic. It is found at the depth of about 100 feet, reposing on wood coal, in lumps of various sizes, some five pounds in weight, and is often washed on shore, by tempests. It adds about 5000*l.* yearly to the royal revenue.

SPAIN.

SPAIN appears to have been known to the Phœnicians, who imported from it large quantities of silver, near 1000 years before the birth of Christ. From the noble river Iberus, or Ebro, the country was called Iberia; and from its extreme situation in the west it was also styled Hesperia. The Romans, probably from a native term, have fixed and handed down *Hispania*; which has been variously adapted to the idiom of modern languages.

EXTENT. Spain lies between the 36th and 44th degrees of north latitude; and its western extremity is about 9° in longitude W. from London. The greatest length W. to E. is about 600 miles; the breadth N. to S. more than 500; thus forming almost a compact square (if we include Portugal in this general view of the country), and surrounded on all sides by the sea, except where the Pyrenean chain forms a grand natural barrier against France. Spain is supposed to contain about 148,000 square miles; which, estimating the population at 11,000,000, yield 74 persons to the mile square.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of Spain seems to have consisted of Celts from Gaul, and of Moors from Africa; but the latter, a more warlike race, expelled the former, and even passed into Aquitain in France. After the German Gauls had colonized the south of modern France, where they were called Galli Braccati, they began to make expeditions into Spain, and seized the region to the N. E. becoming the Celtiberi of classical geography. It is probable that the African settlers were not a little assisted in the expulsion of the primeval Celts by the Phœnicians, and afterwards by the Carthaginians, whence the latter maintained such sway in distant parts of

this country. Towards the east large colonies of Carthaginians, and afterwards of Romans were introduced. In the fifth century it was conquered by the Vandals; but, being afterwards weakened by their settlements in Africa, they were subdued by the Visigoths, who founded the modern kingdom of Spain, and from whom the more ancient families still pretend to derive their origin. The Mahometan Moors having been expelled, they must not be considered in the estimate, though a few families may be of Arabian extract : and the modern Spaniards may be considered as descended from the African Iberians, the Celtiberians, or German Gauls, the Romans, and the Visigoths.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The chief historical epochs of Spain are;

1. The original population by the Africans, and German Gauls.

2. The Carthaginian acquisitions in Spain.

3. The conquest by the Romans, who maintained possession for more than five centuries.

4. The subjection of Spain to the Vandals, about the year 415.

5. The conquest of Spain by the Visigoths under Euric, excepting Galicia, held by the Suevi, who had entered with the Vandals. The Galicians have to this day a distinct character of superior industry. In Euric, A. D. 472, commences the modern kingdom and history of Spain.

6. The conquest by the Arabs, or Moors, which began A. D. 709, and soon extended over all Spain, except the mountains of Asturias, where king Pelagius maintained a confined dominion over that district and Biscay. His descendants fixed the royal residence at Oviedo, built in 761, and not only defended their small territory, which was naturally fortified with chains of mountains, but soon regained Galicia, and part of Leon and Castile. In 914, as the territory extended towards the south, the kings began to reside at Leon, and thence derived their title; to which, in the eleventh century, was added that of Castile. But the Moors must be regarded as the chief possessors of Spain till the middle of the thirteenth century.

7. The reign of Alphonso the Wise, which began A. D. 1252, and which rivalled those of the Spanish chalifs in the protection afforded to the arts and sciences.

8. The conquest of the kingdom of Granada, the last of the Moorish royalties; and the junction of the important crowns of Castile and Arragon, in the persons of Ferdinand and Isabella.

9. The reign of Charles V. son of Philip of Austria, who married the heiress of Arragon and Castile, and established the Spanish monarchy on its present basis. The wealth of America, discovered in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, now began to impart exuberant supplies, and the power of Spain arrived at its zenith.

10. Acquisition of Portugal by Philip II. A. D. 1580.

11. The revolt of Portugal under Philip IV. A. D. 1640; which has since existed as a separate kingdom, after having been subject to the Spaniards for sixty years.

12. The termination of the Austrian dynasty by the death of Charles II. November 1, 1700; and the accession of the house of Bourbon; since which no epoch of singular consequence has arisen.

DIVISIONS. The most recent sub-divisions of Spain are into fourteen provinces, viz:

1. Galicia. 2. Asturias. 3. Biscay. 4. Navarre. 5. Arragon. 6. Catalonia. 7. Valentia. 8. Murcia. 9. Granada. 10. Andalusia. 11. Estremadura. 12. Leon. 13. Old Castile. And 14. New Castile.

ANTIQUITIES. The only certain relics of the Carthaginians in Spain, are coins, which have been found in considerable numbers.

The Roman antiquities are, on the contrary, so numerous, that to enter into details on the subject would be prolix, and foreign to the nature of this work. The aqueduct at Segovia is one of the noblest of the Roman edifices. Morviedo, the ancient Saguntum, presents many curious remains of antiquity. Tarragona, the ancient Tarraco, also contains several interesting monuments.

The Visigothic kings have left few relics, except their coins, which are struck in gold; a metal then unknown to the other European mints, and seemingly native.

Numerous and splendid are the monuments of the Moors in Spain, of which we will only describe *Alhambra*, an ancient Moorish palace in Granada:

“ You enter first into an oblong court of 150 feet by 90, with a basin of water in the midst, of 100 feet in length, encompassed by a flower border. At each end is a colon-

nade. From hence you pass into the court of the lions, so called because the fountain in the middle is supported by thirteen lions. It is adorned with a colonnade of 140 marble pillars. The royal bedchamber has two alcoves, adorned with columns, and a fountain between them in the middle of the room. Adjoining to this are two hot baths. The great hall is about 40 feet square, and 60 in height, with eight windows and two doors, all in deep recesses. Between this and the oblong court is a gallery of 90 feet by 16. All these lower apartments have fountains, and are paved either with tiles or marble in checkers. The idea of the ceilings is evidently taken from *stalactites*, or drop-stones, found in the roofs of natural caverns. The ornaments of the friezes are arabesque, and perfectly accord with Arabic inscriptions, which are here suited to the purpose for which each apartment was designed." Above is a suit of elegant apartments for the winter. This edifice was finished A. D. 1336.

RELIGION. The religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic, which in this country and Portugal has been carried to a pitch of fanaticism unknown to the Italian states, or even to the papal territory; though the evil has been recently subdued in a considerable degree.

The clergy and religious in Spain, including the various orders of monks and nuns, are very numerous, amounting to 118,625.

The archbishoprics are eight: bishoprics forty-six. The most opulent see is that of Toledo, which is supposed to yield annually about 90,000*l*. The Mozarabic Missal, composed by St. Isidore for the Gothic church, after the conversion from Arianism to the Catholic faith, continued to be used in Spain till the Moors were subdued, when the Roman form was introduced.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Spain is well known to be despotic, the states or cortes having hardly been assembled since the time of Charles V. But the despotism of the monarchy is here balanced by the power of the church, to which the nobles are submissive devotees. It is also tempered by many councils, who are responsible for any unwise or unsuccessful measures, and the subject is less oppressed by the power of the crown, than in some other states where there is a greater appearance of liberty.

The laws of Spain are contained in several ancient codes; and recourse is also had to the civil and canon law. The *Escrivanos* are numerous, and instead of explaining the codes, often impede the administration of justice. Mistaken mercy frequently retains criminals in long durance, so that when they are executed their offence is forgotten, and the example of punishment becomes inefficacious.

POPULATION. The population of this kingdom is computed at 11,000,000, or 74 to a square mile; while the kingdom of Naples is computed at 201. This striking defect of population has been attributed to the expulsion of the Jews after the conquest of Granada; that of the Moors by Philip III. the contagious fevers frequent in the southern provinces; the incessant intestine wars, for seven centuries carried on against the Moors; the emigrations to America, and the vast numbers of unmarried clergy and monks.

In the year 1787, the population of Spain was thus arranged:

Males unmarried,	2,926,229
Females ditto,	2,753,224
Married Men,	1,947,165
Married Women,	1,943,496
Widows,	462,258
	
		10,032,372

ARMY AND NAVY. The Spanish armies, instead of carrying terror even into the bravest countries of Europe, as they did two centuries ago, are now neither distinguished by number, nor by discipline. They are computed at about 60,000. Of late Spain has paid considerable attention to her navy, which has however been crippled in the recent warfare with England. The ships of the line can scarcely now be computed at less than fifty.

REVENUES. The revenue of Spain may be calculated, as is believed, at five millions and a half sterling money; so that each person pays ten shillings to government for protection. In France, under the old government, each person paid near twenty shillings; in England at present sixty shillings. The expenditure now equals, or exceeds the income; but the national debt is a mere trifle.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. The political importance and relations of Spain were formerly deeply impressed on most regions of the globe. But this fertile kingdom has become almost a cypher in European policy. Setting aside Portugal, the position of Spain secures her from any invasion, except on the side of France; and it becomes therefore the insuperable interest of this exhausted state to cultivate amity with her powerful neighbour, which must maintain an unavoidable and supreme ascendant, from geographical position and relative force. What a spirited and popular monarch might do to shake off this servile dependance, can only be guessed at.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. In speaking of the religion of Spain, one of the most striking of the national customs and manners is the common practice of adultery under the mask of religion.

Exclusive of this vice, the Spanish character is highly respectable for integrity and a long train of virtues. Conscious of an upright and noble mind, the respect which a Spaniard would pay to those qualities in others, is often centered in himself, as he is intimately sensible that he possesses them. This self-respect is nearly allied to pride; but it is the pride of virtue, which certainly ought not to humble itself before vice and folly. Temperance is a virtue which the Spaniard shares in common with other southern nations. In these countries the body is so much exhausted by the influence of heat, that the siesta, or short sleep in the middle of the day, becomes a necessary resource of nature, and is by habit continued even in the winter.

The chief defect in the character of the Spanish nobility and gentry is, their aversion to agriculture and commerce. Instead of those beautiful villas, and opulent farms which enrich the whole extent of England, the Spanish architecture is almost confined to the capital, and a few other cities and towns.

Since the accession of the house of Bourbon, a slight shade of French manners has been blended with the Spanish gravity. But fashions have here little sway; and the prohibition of slouched hats and long cloaks led to a serious insurrection. The houses of the great are large and capacious; but the cottages and inns are, on the contrary, miserable.

The amusements of people of rank chiefly consist in dancing and cards; but the combats with bulls in the amphitheatres have justly been regarded as the most striking feature of Spanish and Portuguese manners. That such spectacles tend to familiarise the people with bloodshed, seems an idle theory, unwarranted by facts. Modern Italy has no gladiators, but numerous assassins; ancient Rome had scarcely one assassin, but whole armies of gladiators.

LANGUAGE. The Spanish language is one of the three great southern dialects which spring from the Roman; but many of the words become difficult to the French or Italian student, because they are derived from the Arabic, used by the Moors, who for seven centuries held dominion in this country. The speech is grave, sonorous, and of exquisite melody, containing much of the slow and formal manner of the Orientals, who seem sensible that the power of speech is a privilege.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. The universities, or rather academies, in Spain, are computed at upwards of twenty; of which the most noted is that of Salamanca, founded in the year 1200, by Alphonso IX. king of Leon, and afterwards regulated by Alphonso the Wise. The students have, at former periods, been computed at 16,000; and even now the reign of Aristotle in logic and natural philosophy, and of Thomas Aquinas in theology, continues unviolated, so that a student of the year 1800 may aspire to as much ignorance as one of the year 1300. In 1785 the number of students was computed at 1909. The same antiquated teachers are received with implicit faith in the other universities, so that a more liberal education at school must be here obliterated.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Madrid, the royal residence, while Seville is esteemed the capital of Spain, is of recent fame. Philip II. first established his court at Madrid and the nobility, in consequence, erecting numerous palaces, this formerly obscure town began to assume an air of grandeur. The central position seems the chief advantage, for the environs can boast of little beauty or variety. The river Mançenares is in winter a torrent, but dry in summer: over it is an elegant bridge, which occasioned a sarcastic remark, that the bridge should be sold in order to purchase water. This metropolis contains 13 parishes, 7,938 houses, 32,745 families, amounting to a population

of 147,543. The convents are 66 ; and there are fifteen gates of granite, many of which are elegant. The chief is the Puerta de Alcala, of three arches, the central being 70 feet in height. The churches and monasteries contain many noble paintings, and the royal palaces display considerable magnificence. The new palace presents four fronts of 470 feet in length, and 100 in height, enriched with numerous pillars and pilasters. The foundation was laid in 1737, three years after the ancient palace had fallen a sacrifice to the flames. The audience chamber is deservedly admired, being a double cube of 90 feet, hung with crimson velvet, and adorned with a sumptuous canopy and painted ceiling. The prado is a spacious course, in which the great display their elegant equipages.

Next Cadiz : the commerce of America formerly centered at Seville, was afterwards removed to this city, which is supposed to contain about 70,000 souls. The two cathedrals are grand ; and there is a hospital which will contain 6000 patients. The hospicio, or general workhouse, is an interesting establishment, containing more than 800 poor of all ages, who are here trained to industry.

Malaga is esteemed the second port in the kingdom, and is also celebrated for excellent wines, the rich Malaga, the mountain, so called from the hills which produce the grape, and the tent or tinto, so styled from its deep red tinge. Malaga stands in a valley surrounded with hills, the houses high, the streets narrow and dirty. Inhabitants about 40,000 ; the cathedral begun in 1528 is not yet finished ; the convents are 25, but of small account. The city swarms with thieves and mendicants.

Towards the S. E. is the third most considerable port of Spain, that of Barcelona. The streets are narrow and crooked ; the churches rather rich than beautiful. The hospicio contains about 1400 industrious poor, and there is a house of correction which sometimes includes even women of rank, if guilty of drunkenness or other low vices. The inhabitants of Barcelona are computed at more than 100,000 ; and industry prevails here, being a native virtue of the Catalonians : the chief manufactures are silk, cotton, and wool, excellent fire-arms and cutlery ; the chief imports, corn, fish, and woollen goods ; exports, wine, brandy, cloth, and leather. During peace it is supposed that 1000

vessels enter this port ; of which half are Spanish, 120 French, 100 English, and 60 Danes.

In the southern provinces appears Seville, famous till the year 1720, as the mart of American trade. The inhabitants are computed at 80,000 ; and the churches and convents are opulent and beautiful. The chief manufactures are silk, and recently snuffs (a royal monopoly), not only the common Spanish, but rappee, as it was found that the latter was smuggled from France. The tobacco employs 220 manufacturers, who are strictly examined and guarded. Seville is esteemed the chief *city* of Spain. Madrid being only a *town* distinguished by the royal residence.

Granada has been long celebrated as the paradise of Spain, though the southern provinces be in general unhealthy. This city stands in a vale bounded by hills, beyond which to the south is the Sierra Nevada, so called because the mountains are covered with perpetual snow. The inhabitants are supposed to be 80,000 ; the Moorish palace here has been already described ; and adjoining is a palace erected by Charles V. The cathedral and convents contain excellent pictures by Spanish masters. The municipal government is in a *corregidor* and twenty-four *regidores*. There are beautiful public walks, and the environs are delightful and well cultivated.

EDIFICES. The most remarkable edifices of Spain are the cathedrals of the several sees, and the churches belonging to opulent convents. The houses of the nobility are confined, with few exceptions, to the capital and other cities, instead of adorning the country at large as in England. The palace and monastery of the Escorial have been described at great length by many travellers. It is seated in a deep recess, at the foot of high mountains ; and was built by that bigot Philip II. in the strange form of a gridiron, the instrument of the martyrdom of St. Lawrence, upon whose anniversary the Spaniards gained the victory of St. Quintin. The convent is 740 feet by 580 ; and the palace forms the handle of this imaginary gridiron. The paintings are excellent and numerous ; and the vault containing the royal tombs is grand and impressive. But the palaces of Aranjuez and St. Ildefonso are greater favourites with the court.

INLAND NAVIGATION. The inland navigations of Spain, though commenced upon united principles of gran-

deur and utility, have been permitted to languish through the want of resources, and the slow measures of the court, rather than by any indolence of the superintendants and labourers. The great canal of Arragon seems to remain in a state of imperfection, though we are told that two branches are completed from the Ebro towards Navarre, and have been attended with the most beneficial consequences. Another canal was to begin at Segovia, or about 40 miles N. of Madrid, thence to extend to the bay of Biscay. This is termed the canal of Castile. The canal of Guadarama was conducted with more spirit, and is probably completed. It was to open near the Escorial and proceed south to the Tajo or Tagus.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The manufactures of Spain are considerably checked by the royal monopolies.

Many manufactures are however conducted in Spain with great spirit and assiduity; and any failure must not be imputed so much to the indolence of the people, as to the prejudices of the great, and the inquisitorial power of the ecclesiastics, which cramps genius and invention of all kinds, and constrains the mind to the same perpetual circle. Spain supplies wines, oil, fruits, silk, leather broad cloth, and other articles to many European countries; but her chief trade is with her own colonies in America. The soil of Spain is exuberant in the production of saltpetre; and the barilla, used in making glass, has been long celebrated.

In the year 1784, the exports from Spain to America were thus computed in pounds sterling:

Spanish produce 1,958,849*l*. Foreign produce 2,389,229*l*.
Total 4,348,078*l*.

The duties were computed at 170,800*l*.

The imports from America to Spain were, at the same time, thus estimated in the same money:

Money and jewels 9,291,237*l*. Merchandize 3,343,936*l*.

The duty amounted to more than half a million.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Spain has been deservedly praised, as equal if not superior to that of any country in Europe; in the south the sea breeze, beginning about nine in the morning and continuing till five in the evening, agreeably diversifies the warmth of the summer; and in the northern provinces the severity of

winter is allayed by the proximity of the ocean, which generally supplies gales rather humid than frosty.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil is generally light, and reposes on beds of gypsum or plaister of Paris, itself an excellent manure. "The common course of husbandry about Barcelona begins with wheat; which being ripe in June, is immediately succeeded by Indian corn, hemp, millet, cabbage, kidney-beans, or lettuce. The second year these same crops succeed each other as before, The next year they take barley, beans, or vetches; which, coming off the ground before midsummer, are followed as in the former years, by other crops, only changing them according to the season, so as to have on the same spot the greatest possible variety." The Huerta, or rich vale of Alicant, yields a perpetual succession of crops. Barley is sown in September, reaped in April, succeeded by maize, reaped in September; and a mixed crop of esculents follow. Wheat is sown in November, and reaped in June; flax in September, pulled in May. In the vale of Valencia wheat yields from twenty to forty; barley from eighteen to twenty-four; oats from twenty to thirty; maize one hundred; rice forty. In the more southern provinces the land is almost equally fertile; and the sugar-cane is cultivated with success near Granada. Agriculture is greatly impeded in Spain by the superior attention paid to the large flocks of sheep, which are authorized by a special code, the mesta, to travel from one province to another, as the season presents pasturage in the vales, or on the mountains. The Merino sheep, or flocks, thus privileged, are computed at 5,000,000; and one nobleman has sometimes 40,000. The fleece is esteemed double in value to that of other sheep; but the checks given to agriculture by such privileges, unknown to all other countries, are incalculable.

RIVERS. Among the chief rivers of Spain may be named the Ebro, which anciently conferred an appellation on the country. This noble stream rises in the mountains of Asturias, and enters the Mediterranean sea, after having run about 380 G. miles. The other rivers running to the east are of less importance, as the Guadalavir, the Xucar, and the Segura, which enlivens the fertile vales of Murcia. Towards the west occurs the Guadalquivir, the ancient Bætis, which gave name to the province. This river originates in the Sierra Morena, and flows into the gulph of

Cadiz, after a course of near 300 G. miles. But the chief river of Spain and Portugal is the Tajo, or Tagus, which rises in the west of Arragon, near Albarracin, in a spring called Abrega, and holds a course of about 450 G. miles. The Douro springs near the ruins of ancient Numantia ; and its course may be computed at 350 G. miles.

MOUNTAINS. The Spanish mountains are arranged by nature in several distinct chains. The most northern is regarded as a continuation of the Pyrenees, passing on the S. of Biscay and the Asturias in Galicia.

The second chain of Spanish mountains extends from near Soria on the N. E. and pursues a S. W. direction towards Portugal. The third is that of Toledo, running nearly parallel with the last. These two central chains seem to contain great quantities of granite.

Next towards the S. is the Sierra Morena, or Brown Mountains, which are followed by the most southern ridge, that of the Sierra Nevada.

On the east there is a considerable chain, which connects the two central ridges, and advances towards the Mediterranean in the north of Valencia.

A remarkable solitary mountain, not far from Barcelona, must not be omitted. At a distance Montserrat appears like a sugar-loaf ; but on a nearer approach seems jagged like a saw, with pyramidical rocks ; it is composed of limestone and gravel, united by calcareous cement ; and is of such a height that from its summit may be discerned the islands of Majorca and Minorca, at the distance of 50 leagues. Not far from Montserrat, near the village of Cardona, is a hill three miles in circumference, which is one mass of rock salt, used in the dry climate of Spain for vases, snuff-boxes, and trinkets, like our Derbyshire spar.

The Spanish side of the Pyrenees has not been accurately examined ; and as the French mineralogists have amply illustrated the part belonging to France, an account of these mountains has been given in the description of that country.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The soil of Spain was anciently very fruitful in corn ; but there has lately been some scarcity, by the neglect of tillage, through indolence. It produces in many places, almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy ; oranges, lemons,

prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. The wines of Spain, especially sack and sherry, are in high credit among foreigners. In the district of Malaga, alone there are 14,000 wine presses. The sugar canes thrive in Spain, and it yields saffron, honey, and silk in abundance.

The sheep-walks are for the most part open downs with little shelter, except here and there a grove of chesnut trees, or evergreen oaks; the turf differs essentially from that of the English sheep-walks in containing very few species of grass, being chiefly composed of the smaller papilionaceous plants.

The glory of the Spanish zoology is the horse, which has been famous in all ages, probably originating from the barb, or beautiful and spirited steed from the north of Africa, the immediate offspring of the Arabian. The Spanish mules are also excellent, and the ass is here no ignoble animal, though not equal to that of Arabia. The breed of sheep has been long celebrated as perhaps superior to any in the world, for the delicacy of the mutton, and the beauty of the fleece. The purity of the air, and aromatic pasture, no doubt contribute to both qualities, which it is to be suspected would degenerate on transportation.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of Spain was anciently of more importance than in modern times. Pliny, after observing that silver was generally found with galena or lead ore, proceeds to state that the fairest of all silver, was found in Spain, where the pits begun by Hannibal, lasted to his time, being known by the names of their original discoverers. That called Babelo had yielded to Hannibal 300 weight a day, a mountain being pierced for a mile and a half, through which the workmen directed large streams of water: so that the plan pursued seems to have been that called hushing by modern writers. Strabo informs us that the province of the Turditani, modern Andalusia, was the most productive of precious metals; and gold, silver, brass, and iron, were no where found more abundant, nor of better quality; gold was found in the sands of the rivers and torrents, a known attribute of the Tagus. Polybius informs us concerning the mines of silver near Carthagera, which occupied a number of workmen, and yielded to the Romans 25,000 drachms daily.

At present almost the only silver mines in Spain are those of Guadalcanal, in the Sierra Morena. At Almaden

in La Mancha are valuable mines of quicksilver, which are chiefly remitted to Spanish America, and employed in refining the more precious metals. Calamine appears near Alcavas ; cobalt in the Pyrenees ; antimony in La Mancha ; copper on the frontiers of Portugal ; tin in Galicia ; and lead is common in many districts. The iron of Spain is abundant, and still maintains its high character ; and coals are found in the district of Villa Franca, in Catalonia, where also occur gold, silver, copper, and lead. Amber and jet (in Spanish Azabache) are found together in the territory of Beloncia in the Asturias.

SPANISH ISLES.

The chief circumjacent islands belonging to Spain are Majorca, Minorca, and Eviza. Majorca is about 55 English miles in length, by 45 in breadth. The N. W. part is hilly : the rest abounds with cultivated land, vineyards, orchards, and meadow ; the air is temperate, and the honey highly esteemed : there is generally a considerable military force in the isle. The capital, seated on a fair bay, is an elegant city, and is supposed to contain 10,000 inhabitants. Majorca was reconquered from the Moors by James I. king of Arragon in 1229.

Majorca is generally in too strong a state of defence to admit of an easy conquest, but Minorca has been repeatedly seized by the English, to whom it presents an advantageous station for the Mediterranean trade. It is about 30 miles in length, by about 12 of medial breadth. The air is moist, and the soil rather barren, being chiefly calcareous with lead, and fine marble. The wine is praised ; and the inhabitants retain a share of their ancient reputation as excellent slingers. Cittadella the capital, has a tolerable haven, but the population and fortifications are of little consequence. Port-Mahon on the S. E. has an excellent harbour and received its name from Mago the Carthaginian general. Eviza is the nearest to Spain, about 15 miles long and 12 broad. It is remarkable for its fruits, and abundance of excellent salt.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

THE Turkish empire, once so formidable to Europe, has lately sunk before the power of Russia. Turkey in Europe is computed to contain 182,560 square-miles ; an extent which exceeds that of Spain, or even France under the ancient monarchy.

CIVIL DIVISIONS. As European Turkey forms a recent sovereignty, the greater part of which was subjugated in the fifteenth century, after the fall of Constantinople and of the Byzantine empire, there is no ancient appellation for its whole extent. It embraces many ancient kingdoms and republics, which now only afford a melancholy remembrance of classical names and events. 1. Moldavia, part of ancient Dacia. 2. Budzac, or Bessarabia, a country of the Getæ and Peucini. 3. Walachia, a province also of the ancient Dacians. 4. Bulgaria which embraces nearly the two provinces of Mæsia. 5. Romelia, or ancient Thracia, Pæonia, Macedonia, and the northern part of the classical country of Greece. 6. The Morea, equivalent to the ancient Peloponnesus. To the W. of Romelia extends, 7. Albania ; which includes the kingdom of Epirus, Chaonia, and a part of Illyricum. 8. Dalmatia retains its ancient appellation : while, 9. Servia, and 10. Bosnia represent ancient Pannonia. 11. Turkish Croatia, the most western province of the empire, also forms a portion of ancient Pannonia, with perhaps a small district of Noricum.

EXTENT. Turkey in Europe extends about 870 miles in length, from the northern boundary of Moldavia, to Cape Matapan in the Morea. The breadth from the river Unna to Constantinople, is about 680 British miles. The eastern and southern boundaries are formed by the

Euxine or Black Sea, the sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, and the Mediterranean. The utmost northern limit is now the river Dniester; but the western often consists of an arbitrary line, and is sometimes supplied by rivers or mountains.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of this empire chiefly sprung from the ancient Scythians on the Euxine, the progenitors of the Dacians, Thracians, &c. and even of the Greeks. These were originally blended, towards the north, with many Sarmatic or Slavonic tribes; and on the fall of the Roman empire the latter spread more and more towards the south, so that nearly one half of the population may now be regarded as Slavonic; but Walachia is supposed to contain many descendants of the ancient Roman settlers in Dacia. The extent of the Turkish empire has contributed to mingle this original population with various Asiatic races, among whom the Turks themselves deserve particular mention. That branch called the Ottomans, which has proved so destructive to Europe, derived their name from the calif Othman, who reigned in the beginning of the fourteenth century, and extended his sway into the plains of Bithynia, in which he conquered Nicomedia and Prusa, and thus approached even to the gates of Constantinople, and at length overthrew the Greek empire.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. It would be difficult and unsatisfactory minutely to state the historical epochs of this extensive dominion, containing so many ancient kingdoms and states. It shall therefore be only premised, that after the Roman arms had subdued these countries and cities, many of which are celebrated in the most ancient pages of history, they became in the fifth century an important part of the Byzantine empire: and the historical epochs most appropriated to the present design will delineate their gradual subjugation by the Turks.

1. The first dawn of Turkish history preceding the reign of Othman, A. D. 1299.

2. In the reign of his successor, Orkan, the Turks take Gallipoli, and penetrate into Thrace; which province was soon after conquered, and Adrianople was taken A. D. 1360. Two years afterwards the sultan Amurath established the famous military bands called Janizaries, composed of Christian slaves educated in Mahometanism from their infancy.

3. The reign of Bajazet, who defeats the Hungarians at Nicopoli, in Bulgaria, A. D. 1396. In 1402 the famous battle was fought near Ancyra, between Bajazet and Timur, which for a period checked the Turkish power: yet in 1412 the emperor Sigismund was defeated by the sultan Mousa, with great slaughter.

4. The Turks continue to increase their dominion in Europe, though they received severe checks from the Hungarians under Hunniades, and even from the Albanians commanded by the celebrated George Castriota, called by the Turks Scanderberg.

5. Constantinople taken by the Turks on the 29th of May 1453. In 1456 happened the siege of Belgrade by Mahomet II. Corinth and the Morea became subject to the Crescent A. D. 1458. In 1480 Otranto in Italy was taken by the Turks, an event which diffused great terror throughout Europe.

6. A considerable accession to the Turkish power took place in the conquest of Egypt, A. D. 1517. In 1522 Rhodes submits to the Turks: the knights were afterwards transferred to Malta. In 1526 the noted battle of Mohatz, in which Lewis king of Hungary perished; and the sultan Soliman soon after took Buda. In 1529 he besieges Vienna at the head of 250,000 men, but the city being bravely defended by Frederic, prince palatine, the Turks withdrew with great loss. In 1552 the Turks seized the Bannat of Temeswar; and took Cyprus from the Venetians in 1571.

7. In the same year was the famous naval battle of Lepanto, which delivered Europe from any apprehension of the Turks by sea. They continued however to invade Hungary with various success. But their wars with Persia gradually diverted their arms from Europe. In 1642 the sultan Ibrahim took from the Cossacs the town of Azof at the mouth of the Don. Towards the middle of this century, they seized some Grecian isles, which the naval power of the Venetians had enabled them to retain.

8. Mahomet IV. renews the war against the emperor of Germany; and in 1663 the Austrians were defeated in Hungary. The isle of Candia is taken in 1669 after a long blockade and siege. Wars with Poland. The siege of Vienna, 1683, was raised by John Sobieski king of Poland. Hungary became the scene of repeated Turkish and Austrian conquests, till 1699, the peace of Carlovitz, by which

the Turks yielded Transylvania to the Austrians, the Morea to the Venetians, and Azof to the Russians.

9. In 1736 a successful war was begun with the Russians and Austrians; the Turks by the peace of 1739 resumed Belgrade and Orsova, with some parts of Servia and Walachia, formerly ceded to Austria; and Russia is constrained to abandon Azof.

10. The more recent wars of the Russians against the Turks, and the subsequent decline of the Ottoman empire.

ANTIQUITIES. The ancient monuments of European Turkey are well known to exceed in number and importance those of any other country. The remains of ancient Athens, in particular, formerly the chosen seat of the arts, have attracted the attention of many travellers, and have been repeatedly described. A venerable monument of antiquity, the church dedicated to the divine wisdom, or vulgarly Sancta Sophia, by the emperor Justinian in the sixth century, has been fortunately preserved, by being converted into a mosque. The interior is adorned with a profusion of marble columns, of various beautiful descriptions, the purple Phrygian, the Spartan green, the red and white Carian, the African of a saffron colour, and many other kinds.

RELIGION. The religion of the Turks is the Mahometan; but of their subjects, in this division of the empire, it is probable that two-thirds are Greek Christians. The religion of Mahomet has been recently cleared from many erroneous representations; but its pernicious effects are sufficiently visible in the destruction of art and industry, wherever it has made its appearance.

The mufti, or Mahometan pontiff, presides at Constantinople: but his power has seldom interfered with the civil government. Next to him in rank are the moulahs, who, though esteemed dignitaries of the church, are in fact rather doctors of the law, while the Koran is also a code of civil observance. From the moulahs, are selected the inferior muftis or judges through the empire, and the cadilesquiers, or chief justices.

The next class of divines are the imaums, or parish priests, who perform the service of the mosques, while the cadis are judges annually appointed to administer justice in the towns and villages, being themselves to be regarded

as churchmen, who, like the moulahs, have directed their chief attention to the juridical part of the Koran.

The Turks have also their monks, styled dervishes, of four various orders and institutions, dedicated by solemn vows to religious offices, public prayer, and preaching.

The Greeks, along with their faith, retain their priests, bishops, archbishops, and patriarchs; but their church is in the last state of degradation, and its dignities openly sold by the Turks.

GOVERNMENT. The sultan is a despotic sovereign; but he is himself strictly subject to the laws of the Koran which, including also the national religion, raise such obstructions to his absolute will, that an intelligent traveller pronounced many Christian sovereignties more despotic. Hence it appears that the power of the monarch is balanced by a religious aristocracy, which together with the munities of the Janizaries and the insurrections of the provincial pachas, has greatly weakened the sovereign authority.

The Turkish laws, as has been already mentioned, are contained in the Koran and its commentaries.

POPULATION. Turkey in Europe has been computed to contain 8,000,000 of inhabitants; and the extent being supposed 182,560 square miles, the allotment will be 43 to the mile square. It is probable that this number rather exceeds the truth, when it is considered that these regions are intersected by many mountainous and barren tracts, and that the population even of the best provinces impresses travellers with a striking defect.

ARMY AND NAVY. The Turkish army and navy may deserve more particular consideration under the head of Asiatic Turkey, as the chief sources fall under that division. It may here be briefly remarked that there are about 30 ships of the line; while the army, can scarcely exceed 150,000, ill disciplined, and dispirited by successive disasters.

REVENUES. The revenues of the whole Turkish empire are computed at about 7,000,000 sterling, while the usual expence does not exceed five. This revenue is partly derived from the capitation tax on unbelievers, and from the *zecchât* or customs; but principally from the tax on land, amounting to about six shillings an acre, and which is called the *jizie*.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. The palpable and rapid decline of the Turkish empire has of course greatly impaired its political importance. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, France, being alarmed by the growing power of the house of Austria, entered into an alliance with Turkey, the just subject of murmur among the Christian powers. This alliance has been recently violated by the perfidious rulers of the French republic, who invaded Egypt in the time of profound peace, and without any offence given by the Porte. Since the peace the French have regained their usual ascendancy, and by their potent interposition, may no doubt, if they choose, considerably modify, and perhaps render null, any future conspiracy of Austria and Russia against the European dominions of Turkey. The Turks are sensible that a strict alliance with Prussia would be of singular advantage to them; that power can have little interest in such a treaty, but must, on the contrary, rather exult to see the power of Russia exerted against Turkey and Asia. Meanwhile the Turks have spared no endeavour to secure the friendship of several European powers, and have appointed resident ambassadors at several courts, who may be regarded as heralds of their fall: for in their prosperity they disdained to send any envoys, and regarded the ambassadors at the Porte as tributary slaves, sent to solicit the protection of the sultan. Amidst the defection of several pachas, in the east as well as in Europe, it is fortunate for the Ottoman empire that the power of Persia is dormant.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the Turks are distinguished by the peculiarity of their religion from those of other European nations. On the birth of a child the father himself gives the name, putting at the same time a grain of salt into his mouth. In diet the Turks are extremely moderate, and their meals are dispatched with great haste. Rice is the favourite food, and is chiefly dressed in three ways; the pilau, boiled with mutton or fowl; the lappa, or mere boiled rice; and the tchorba, a kind of broth of the same vegetable. The meal is usually spread on a low wooden table, and the master of the house pronounces a short prayer. The frugal repast is followed by fruits and cold water, which are succeeded by hot coffee and pipes, with tobacco. The dress of their women differs little from that of the men, the chief distinction

being the head-dress ; that of the fair sex consisting of a bonnet, (instead of a turban) like an inverted basket, formed of pasteboard covered with cloth of gold, or other elegant materials, with a veil extending to the eyebrows, while a fine handkerchief conceals the under part of the face. The amusements of the Turks partake of their indolent apathy, if we except hunting and those of a military description. To recline on an elegant carpet, or in the hot season by the side of a stream, and smoke the delicate tobacco of Syria, may be regarded as their chief amusement. With opium they procure what they call a kief, or placid intoxication, during which the fancy forms a thousand agreeable images, but when the dose is too potent these are succeeded by irritation and ferocity.

LANGUAGE AND SCHOOLS. The Turkish language is of far inferior reputation to the Persian or Arabic, being a mixture of several dialects, and possessing neither the force, elegance, nor purity of those two celebrated oriental tongues. The design of establishing a printing press at Constantinople, has been opposed by the copyists, who inferred that this art would deprive them of their bread. There are in this capital several public libraries, but none are so elegant as that founded by the grand vizir Raghid, which is wholly built of marble in the midst of a square court, and is filled with books chiefly theological. A librarian constantly attends, and there are convenient seats with carpets and cushions. In the neighbourhood is a school founded by the same vizir, in which about 100 boys are taught to read and write. The market for books is extensive, containing many shops well supplied with oriental manuscripts.

The state of education among the Turks may be conceived to be very low, and ignorance is indeed a chief part of the national character. The only profession which requires a shadow of learning is that of the law, which, as before explained, is intimately connected with their theology. The celebrated doctors have disciples, who are trained up to that department : but there seems nothing that can deserve the name of college or university.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The chief city of European Turkey, and of the Turkish empire, is Constantinople, built on the site of the ancient Byzantium. The advantages of the situation can hardly be exceeded, and the aspect from the sea is peculiarly grand ; but on a nearer ap-

proach, the wooden hovels and narrow streets disappoint the splendid expectations of the spectator. This capital forms an unequal triangle, being about twelve or fourteen English miles in circumference, inclosed by walls, and on two sides by the sea and the harbour called the Golden Horn. The inhabitants are computed at 400,000, including the four suburbs, Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Scutari. Of these 200,000 are Turks, 100,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks. The most celebrated edifices are the Seraglio, which comprises a large space crowded with various buildings of mean architecture; and the mosque of Sancta Sophia. The principal entrance of the Seraglio is styled Capi, or the Porte, an appellation which has passed to the Turkish court.

Next in dignity and extent is the city of Adrianople, formerly the European seat of the Turkish dominion. This city, which stands about 140 British miles to the N. W. of Constantinople was founded by the emperor Hadrian on the site of the ancient Orestias. This second city of European Turkey is of a circular form, and at present unfortified. Many of the houses are respectable, but the streets are narrow and indirect. The Seraglio is in a pleasant situation, separated from the city by the river Arda, and commanding an extensive view of the country, which is fertile, and remarkable for excellent vines. Several of the mosques are of celebrated splendour, and the commerce of the city, by the river, is not inconsiderable.

The city of Sofia, situated in a low country N. W. from Adrianople, is of considerable trade, but meanly built: the inhabitants are computed at 70,000.

Silistria in Bulgaria, on the river Danube, is computed to contain 60,000 souls; and Bucharest, the chief city of Walachia, is estimated at the same number.

Belgrade, the capital of Servia, repeatedly disputed between the Austrians and Turks, is now destitute of fortifications, but is supposed to retain about 25,000 inhabitants.

In the more southern provinces the chief city worth notice is Salonica, computed at 60,000, a city of considerable commerce, seated on a noble gulph of the Archipelago.

EDIFICES. All that deserve a place in this work have been already noticed.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The native manufactures exported from European Turkey are inconsiderable, being chiefly carpets, and a few other articles; but the rude products are far more numerous, as currants, figs, saffron, statuary marble from Paros, silk, and drugs; engrossed chiefly by foreigners.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The extensive regions comprised within the limits of European Turkey enjoy, in general, a delicious climate, pure air, and regular seasons. In Walachia the air is so temperate that vines and melons prosper. In the mountainous parts of the more southern districts the temperature must partake of the cold, universal in such elevated regions; but the products of Macedonia and Greece, rice, vines, and olives, shew that the climate retains its ancient praise.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil is generally fertile, the northern parts producing wheat and rich pasture, the middle and southern abundance of rice. But agriculture, like every other art and science, is neglected by the Turks; and that soil must be truly fertile, which, under their sway, can support its inhabitants.

RIVERS. Among the rivers of European Turkey must first be named the Danube, which from Belgrade to Orsova divides Servia from the Bannat, a space of near 100 miles: and afterwards becomes a Turkish stream for more than 400, being in some places a mile in breadth, and presenting, if possessed by an industrious people, all the advantages of a Mediterranean sea.

Next perhaps in importance, though very inferior, is the Maritz, or ancient Hebrus which rising in a chain of mountains anciently called Hæmus, and running towards the E. and S. falls into the Ægean sea, after a course of about 250 miles. The same sea at the gulph of Salonica receives the Vardari, the ancient Auxias, which rising in Mount Scardus, a western branch of the same chain, pursues a S. E. course of about 200 miles.

MOUNTAINS. The chains of mountains are numerous and extensive. To the W. of Moldavia and the Buckovine runs N. and N. W. for about 200 miles part of the grand Carpathian chain, anciently called the Bastarnic Alps.

On the S. of the Danube appears the grand range of the Hæmus. This chain is deservedly celebrated by the an-

cients, being of great elevation and extent, as appears from the numerous and large rivers which devolve from its sides. The chain running to the S. has many classical appellations, as the Acroceraunian, Pindus, &c. The E. and S. of Greece are also crowded with small chains of mountains and solitary hills, such as Olympus, Ossa, Pelius, and others. Mount Athos, a detached summit in the N. E. is of considerable height, but has chiefly attracted observation from its singular form, so much resembling that of Montserrat in Spain : and from the many monasteries and churches on the declivities of its picturesque pinnacle.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The forests of Greece, the Greek islands, and the provinces bordering the Archipelago to the north, consist of the common and yew-leaved fir, the larch, the cedar, the ilex, the kermes oak, the common oak, the oriental plane-tree, the maple, the sycamore, the walnut, the chesnut, and the beech. The principal fruit-trees are the olive, considerable forests of which, mixed with the broad-leaved myrtle, adorn the shores of Crete and Attica ; the orange, the fig, the vine, the pistachia tree, the mastich tree, the mulberry, and the pomegranate. Of the shrubs and smaller trees the most worthy of notice are the bay-tree, the laurel, two kinds of arbutus, the cypress, the oleander, and the caper bush.

The zoology of European Turkey presents few peculiarities. The jackal, frequent in Africa and Asia, is not unknown in these regions ; and among the beasts of burden must be classed the camel. The Turkish horses are celebrated for spirit and form ; and those of Walachia deserve particular praise. The breeds or qualities of their cattle have been little explained. The sheep distinguished by the name of Walachian, have spiral horns of singular elegance ; but the fineness of the fleece would be a more useful distinction.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of these provinces is also a barren field ; for the indolence and ignorance of the Turks have generally neglected this branch of opulence ; though from the mines in the adjacent regions of Hungary and Transylvania, and from the ancient accounts, there would be room to expect great mineral treasures. The gold mines of Philippi, about 80 miles to the east of Salonica, in the time of Philip of Macedon, produced yearly about 10,000 talents, 2,880,000*l.* sterling ; and silver mines were found in Attica, and other quarters.

ISLANDS

BELONGING TO TURKEY IN EUROPE.

THE classical islands of ancient Greece have been so repeatedly described, that little more than an enumeration may suffice. The largest is that of Crete or Candia, which is about 180 British miles in length, by 40 as its greatest breadth. A chain of high mountains, called the White Mountains, from the snow, pervades a great part of its length. The inhabitants are vigorous and robust, and fond of archery. This isle abounds with cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, and game, all excellent; and the wine is balmy and luscious. The siege of Candia by the Turks in the middle of the seventeenth century is remarkable in modern history, as having continued for 24 years, 1646—1670. This island had before flourished under the Venetians.

Next is Negropont, anciently called Eubœa, about 100 British miles in length by 20 in breadth, a large and important island, which also belonged to the Venetians to a late period.

The other isles are generally of a diminutive size, and were divided by the ancients into separate groups, of which the Cyclades were the most memorable; while the Sporades approached the Asiatic shore.

HOLLAND.

THE Seven United Provinces were, in ancient times, chiefly possessed by the Batavi, a people highly celebrated by Tacitus: reviving an ancient name, the French have recently styled them the Batavian Republic. They were formerly called the republic of Holland, from the name of the chief province; so called from the German word *Hohl*, corresponding with the English word hollow, and implying a concave or very low country.

EXTENT. These provinces extend, from the N. of Groningen to Austrian Flanders and Brabant, about 150 British miles; and in breadth, from what is called the North Sea to the circle of Westphalia, about 100 British miles. The number of square miles is computed at 10,000.

DIVISIONS. The ancient division of Holland was into seven provinces, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, Overijssel. These have recently been divided into fifteen departments.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population appears to have been Celtic: but when the Romans conquered this country, the chief inhabitants were the Batavi, the most northern people of Belgic Gaul, and incontestibly a German or Gothic progeny; who appear to have been secure in their marshes and islands, till the Frisians, the next adjacent people in the north, in the seventh century, extended themselves down to the Scheld. In the eighth century the Frisians were subdued by the Franks under Charles Martel, but the Frisians and Franks may be regarded as mingled in the population with the ancient Batavians.

In 1421 the estuary of the Meuse, or Maese, suddenly formed a vast lake to the S. E. of Dort, overwhelming 72 large villages, with 100,000 inhabitants, who perished in the deluge.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. Among the chief historical epochs may be numbered;

1. The actions of the Batavi in the Roman period, from the first mention of that nation by Julius Cæsar.

2. The conquest by the Frisians, and afterwards by the Danes, and by the Franks.

3. The countries watered by the Meuse and the Rhine were for a long time divided into small earldoms; but in the year 923 Theodoric or Diedric, brother of Herman duke of Saxony, and of Wickman earl of Ghent, was appointed count of Holland by Charles the Simple, king of France, and the title became hereditary. Zealand and Friesland were included in the donation. The county of Gelderland in the east, was erected by the emperor Henry IV. in 1079, and became a duchy in 1339. Utrecht was subject to its powerful prelates, who had frequent contests with the earls of Holland.

4. Frequent contests appear between the earls of Holland and those of Flanders, concerning the possession of the islands of Zealand. Philipina, daughter of William III. earl of Holland, was married to the prince of Wales afterwards Edward III. of England, a princess worthy of an heroic husband. This king afterwards contested the earldom of Holland with Margaret his sister-in-law. Jacquelin the heiress of Holland in 1417 wedded John IV. duke of Brabant; but her uncle John of Bavaria, who had resigned the bishopric of Liege in the hopes of espousing her, contested the succession. A kind of anarchy following, Jacquelin went to England, where she married, in 1423, Humphry duke of Gloucester; and this marriage being annulled by the pope, she wedded in 1432 Borselen stadtholder of Holland; and next year was forced to resign her states to Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy.

5. Holland, and other large possessions of the house of Burgundy, fell by marriage to the house of Austria.

6. Holland and some inferior provinces revolt from the tyranny of Philip II. in 1566; and in 1579 formed the famous union of Utrecht.

7. By the end of that century the Dutch had established colonies at the Cape of Good Hope, and in the East Indies ; and settlements were afterwards gained in S. America. During the seventeenth century they rivalled the English in the empire of the sea ; and greatly exceeded them in commercial advantages. Their power began somewhat to decline after the obstinate naval conflicts in the time of Charles II. In 1672 Louis XIV. invades Holland ; and Amsterdam is only saved by opening the sluices.

8. William stadtholder of Holland ascends the throne of England 1688 ; and a stricter intercourse prevails between the countries, Holland becoming the grand channel of the commerce of England with the continent.

9. The stadtholderate declared hereditary 1747. The war in 1756 opening great connections between Holland and France, a French party began to form in the country, which opposed the stadtholder, who was supported by the English. In 1780 a war arose between Great Britain and Holland, which closed in 1784, after exposing to Europe the decline and weakness of the United Provinces, still farther displayed by the entrance of the duke of Brunswick in 1788, who may be said to have subdued them without a blow.

10. The Dutch having joined the coalition against the French, their country fell a prey to the invaders, during the hard frost of the winter of 1794-5 ; and the stadtholder took refuge in England in 1795. Though a separate government continue, yet the United Provinces must be considered as subject to France, which intends to incorporate the parts S. of the Rhine. The Dutch fleet has since been nearly annihilated by the English, a fate justly merited by ingratitude and cowardice.

ANTIQUITIES. The chief remain of the Roman period is the ruined tower near Catwick, about six miles N. W. from Leyden, at the ancient mouth of the Rhine. In the middle of Leyden, upon an artificial hill, stands a round tower, fabled to have been built by Hengist who first led the Saxons to England.

RELIGION. The Protestant religion, in the Calvinistic form, prevails through the United Provinces. The states of Holland, in 1583, proposed that no other form of worship should be tolerated ; but this resolution was wisely

rejected; and every religion is permitted, on condition that it do not oppose the fundamental laws, or teach any doctrines subversive of the state: yet employments of any consequence can only be filled by Protestants.

The ecclesiastical persons are considered as divided into four ranks, professors at universities, preachers, elders, and deacons: and the government of the church is administered by consistories, classes, and synods.

The Roman Catholics are supposed to have 350 churches, served by 400 priests, exclusive of some in the conquered territory. The chief other sects are the Lutherans, the Remonstrants, or Arminians, Anabaptists and Jews, and a few quakers.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. On the conquest of Holland by the French in 1795, a convention was called to frame a constitution. The plan that was first projected being disapproved by the people, another was afterwards proposed which was accepted. According to this frame, copied from that of France, the government is vested in a legislative body, consisting of two chambers, and a directory. The presidents of the two chambers are changed every fortnight, and a part of the legislature and directory go out every year. The emperor of France, who does as he pleases among his humble allies, seems to be meditating another change.

Justice is administered according to the local customs and statutes of each province and city, the ordinances of the States-general, and in defect of all these the Roman code.

POPULATION. The population of the United Provinces has been recently computed at 2,758,632, and the extent of the territory in square miles being supposed 10,000, there will be 275 for each mile square. The population of Holland, the chief province, is calculated at 980,000.

COLONIES. The Dutch, being, for a considerable time, the chief maritime power in Europe, their colonies were numerous; they still retain the Spice Islands, Batavia in the island of Java, the Cape of Good Hope, Surinam, and other considerable establishments.

ARMY AND NAVY. The army was computed at about 36,000, but it is now incorporated with that of France. The navy which used to consist of forty ships of the line, has by the events of the last war almost totally disappeared.

REVENUE. The revenue was about three millions and a half sterling, but was greatly exceeded by the expenditure; so that the national debt was computed at about 130,000,000*l.* sterling: but 2,800,000*l.* were annually received as the interest of loans to other foreign powers.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE, &c. The political importance and relations of the United Provinces are at present completely immersed in those of France; she is forced to contribute to her own annihilation, and the aggrandizement of her enemies.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. A stranger visiting Holland is surprised at the extreme cleanliness observable in the houses and streets; even hamlets inhabited by poor fishermen displaying a neatness and freshness, which forms a striking contrast with the squalid appearance of the German villages. The air being always moist, and commonly cold, the Dutch dress is calculated for warmth and not for elegance. The people are of a phlegmatic temperament; and their courage at sea is rather obstinacy than ardour. A late amiable traveller observes, that "the infatuation of loving money, not as a mean but as an end, is paramount in the mind of almost every Dutchman, whatever may be his other disposition and qualities; the addiction to it is fervent, inveterate, invincible, and universal from youth to the feeblest old age."

Their dress is little affected by fashion. The opulent merchants delight in their villas, and gardens, in which perhaps one tulip root might cost 50 guineas. In the winter, skating is a favourite amusement, and the canals are crowded with all ranks, from the senator to the milk-maid with her pail, and the peasant with his eggs. They possess some valuable collections of paintings and prints, which also have become an article of commerce and avarice.

LANGUAGE. The Dutch language is a dialect of the German.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. The mode of education pursued in these provinces seems to have been greatly inferior to that used in Scotland, a country enjoying an ecclesiastic government somewhat similar. The Dutch youths being chiefly allotted to a seafaring life, there was not indeed opportunity for numerous parochial schools, and consequent diffusion of common knowledge. The most celebrated Latin schools were at Rotterdam, Breda, Middleburg,

Groningen, &c. The universities are five ; Leyden, Utrecht, Harderwyck, Franecker, and Groningen ; with two inferior colleges at Amsterdam and Deventer. There is an academy of sciences at Haarlem.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Amsterdam, the chief city of Holland, is upon the small river Amstel. The haven is not distinguished by natural advantages, but has been improved and secured by art : and the wide forest of masts impressed every traveller with amazement. The population is computed at about 212,000. The streets are generally narrow, and the canals feculent. The houses have the common air of neatness peculiar to those of the Dutch. The chief edifices are the state-house, founded on piles at an immense expence ; the exchange, and the post-office ; but some streets along the chief canals display houses of uniform grandeur. Some agreeable walks occur in the interior of the city ; but the environs are chiefly visited by water ; yet to the S. there is an agreeable road to Ouder-kirk through pleasant gardens and groves.

Leyden is esteemed the next city in population, containing about 50,000 souls. It is the Lugdunum Batavorum of antiquity, and is distinguished by its university. Here the ancient Rhine almost expires in a number of small channels, which are passed by so many bridges that the number has been computed at more than one hundred. The meadows and gardens around Leyden are remarkably productive, and there is a daily intercourse, by canals, with the other chief cities and provinces. The fair is still much frequented ; but the university has declined.

Next is Rotterdam, with a population of about 48,000 people. There is a noble quay, with houses as handsome as any in the squares of London ; and the great length of the streets is characteristic of Dutch cities, and even towns ; yet they are generally narrow, and the foot pavement is only distinguished by a clean line of bricks. In the market place stands the well-known statue of Erasmus.

Haarlem is computed to contain 40,000 souls ; and, like Leyden, is fortified by old brick walls. The great church is esteemed the largest in the province of Holland ; but the celebrated organ is more remarkable for power than sweetness.

The Hague is only esteemed a village, though the inhabitants be computed at 36,000. The court or pa-

lace, contains several chambers allotted to the different branches of government, besides the apartments of the Stadtholder. The states-general meet in a room which contained twenty-six chairs, for the usual number of the members. The cabinet of natural history has been carried to France, and probably the most curious books and pictures. The Hague is distinguished by its pleasant situation and tranquil grandeur.

INLAND NAVIGATION. To enumerate the canals of the United Provinces would be infinite, for they equal the roads in other countries.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The chief manufactures of Holland are linens; pottery, and painted tiles, especially at Delft; leather, wax, snuff, sugar, starch, paper, besides some of woollen, cotton, and silk. But the most precious branch of commerce consisted in spices and drugs, brought from the settlements in the East Indies. The fishery in the Northern Seas, and even on their own and the English coasts, was also an object of great commercial importance. Latterly perhaps the chief advantage was derived from Holland, being the grand deposit of commerce between Great Britain and the continent, particularly Germany and France. The inland trade with Germany, by the canals and the Rhine, is almost the only branch which has escaped the ravages of war. Of this the most remarkable feature consists in the vast floats of timber brought down the Rhine. The length of these rafts is from 700 to 1000 feet, the breadth from 50 to 90; and 500 labourers direct the floating island, which is crowned with a village of timber huts for their reception.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. Humidity and cold are the chief characteristics of the climate of the United Provinces. The general face of the country is that of a large marsh which has been drained; the canals, and even the sea, looking pale and discoloured by mud. The whole country may be said to display an intimate combination of land and water; and the few elevations commonly consist of barren sand.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The agriculture of such provinces cannot be expected to be considerable, the land being mostly under pasturage, except a few crops of madder, and tobacco, which are cultivated with great predilection. The pasturages in the north of Holland, espe-

cially those of Bemster, and in Friesland, supply such quantities of excellent butter, as to become a staple article of commerce. The cows seem to have been originally from Holstein, and the utmost attention is paid to warmth and cleanliness, so that even in summer the animals appear in the meadows clothed with ludicrous care.

RIVERS. The chief rivers of the United Provinces are the Rhine and the Meuse; the latter here receiving at its estuary the Aa, joined with the Domel from the S. and from the N. that great outlet of the Rhine called the Waal: and near 40 British miles farther to the W. the second grand outlet of the Rhine, called the Leck, joins the Meuse, after which but a small stream passes by Leyden to the German ocean. The principal river falling into the Zuyder Zee is the Issel, which rises not far to the S. W. of Munster, and after receiving the canal of Drusus near Duisberg becomes a considerable stream. On the N. of this is the small estuary of Wecht, which rises to the N. of Munster. The rivers of Friesland and Groningen are so diminutive that they are mostly lost in the numerous canals before they join the sea.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but by draining their bogs, the Dutch have made excellent meadows, which fatten lean cattle from Germany and Denmark, to a great size; and they make prodigious quantities of excellent butter and cheese. Their country produces turf, tobacco, some fruit and iron. They have a good breed of sheep that is highly valued, and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than any in Europe. Their shores abound with fish, particularly turbot and soals.—But their chief fishery is on the coast of England and Scotland.

DENMARK.

THE name of Denmark, implying the marches, boundaries, or territories, of the Danes, is derived from the inhabitants who are first mentioned by this appellation in the sixth century, when we begin to acquire a faint idea of Scandinavia from the history of Jornandes. Norway, anciently Norrick, or the Northern kingdom, affords a palpable and precise derivation.

EXTENT. From the river Elbe, in the south, to the northern extremity of Danish Lapland, and the wild environs of the river Tana, may be computed, after excluding the entrance of the Baltic, an extent of not less than 1400 British miles in length, by a medial breadth of only 150. Of this great length, Denmark occupies about 260 miles, while the remainder belongs to Norway. To the south the Danish province of Holstein borders on the wide territories of Germany ; on the east, west, and north, Denmark is surrounded by the sea. The eastern limits of Norway are chiefly indicated by a long chain of mountains, passing between that country and Sweden.

DIVISIONS. The territories subject to the crown of Denmark are divided into thirteen provinces, viz :

Five in Denmark proper, seven in Norway, and one in the Isles of Ferroe.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of Denmark appears to have consisted of Cimbri, or Northern Celts, the ancestors of the Welch ; and who in particular held the Cimbric Chersonese, or modern Jutland and Sleswic. On the progress of the Goths from the N. and E. the Cimbri were expelled, and their country was possessed by seven Gothic tribes, among which were the

Angli, who afterwards invaded and gave appellation to England. The original possessors of Norway appear to have been the Fins and the Laps, who were driven to the northern extremities by the Gothic invasion, allegorically said to have been conducted by Odin the God of war. The population of Norway has since continued pure and unmixed by foreign conquests.

The chief historical epochs of Denmark are the following; those of Norway preceding the union, are too obscure to be noticed.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. 1. The most ancient population of the continental part of Denmark by the Cimbri.

2. The conquest by the Goths, who appear to have proceeded from Scandinavia into the isles and Jutland, as the dialect differs greatly from the German Gothic, while it is a sister of the Swedish and Norwegian.

3. The Roman and Francic accounts of Denmark, from the time of Pliny and Tacitus to that of Charlemagne.

4. The fabulous and traditional history of Denmark, which extends from about the year of Christ 500 to the reign of Heriold, mentioned by the Francic historians in the time of Charlemagne.

5. The conquest of Denmark by Olaf II. king of Sweden, about the year 900.

6. The more certain history commences with Gurm, or Gormo, A. D. 920. Gormo is succeeded by his son Harald Blaataud 945, who is followed by his son Swein 985, well known by his invasion of England, where he in some measure usurped the sovereignty, and died A. D. 1014.

7. The reign of Canute the Great, king of Denmark, England and Norway. The conversion of Denmark to Christianity had commenced in the beginning of the ninth century; but Christianity was far from being universal there till the reign of Canute the Great, when it was followed by its universal consequences, the cessation of piracy and rapine, and the diffusion of industry and civilization.

8. The reign of Waldemar, surnamed the Great, A. D. 1157, who defeats the Wends, or Slavonic inhabitants of the southern shores of the Baltic, in many battles, and subdues the isle of Rugen. Hence followed slowly the conversion of Pomerania, and of the countries on the east. Waldemar is regarded as the parent of the Danish laws.

9. The marriage of Hakon VI. king of Norway, with Margaret daughter of Waldemar III. king of Denmark, A. D. 1363, produced the memorable union of the three crowns of the north. On the death of her young son, Margaret ascended the throne of Denmark and Norway in 1387, and that of Sweden in 1389. Her husband, Eric of Pomerania, reigned about 26 years after her death; and was followed by Christopher of Bavaria, who removed the royal residence from Roskild to Copenhagen.

10. The accession of the house of Oldenburg, in the person of Christiern I. A. D. 1448. The repeated revolts of Sweden were suppressed by his successor John, who was crowned at Stockholm, in 1497.

11. The tyrannical and unhappy reign of Christiern II. when Sweden was emancipated by the efforts of Gustaf Wase.

12. The abolition of the Roman Catholic religion by Christiern III. 1537; but the Lutheran had been already introduced in 1526.

13. The reigns of Christiern IV. and his successor Frederic III. who was constrained to sign a treaty in March, 1660, by which he abandoned to Sweden the valuable province of Scone, and other parts in the south of Scandinavia, which had long remained in the possession of the Danes, together with the fertile island of Rugen.

14. The memorable revolution of the 23d October, 1660, by which the crown was declared absolute and hereditary. The subsequent events have been little memorable.

ANTIQUITIES. The ancient monuments of Denmark and Norway are chiefly what are called Runic; though it be not clear at what period the use of the Runic characters extended so far to the north. Circles of upright stones are common in all the Danish dominions; in Iceland their origin is perfectly ascertained, as some were erected even in recent times of the Icelandic republic, being called Domhring, or Circles of Judgment. Monuments also occur of the other forms imagined by our antiquaries to be Druidic.

RELIGION. The religion of Denmark and Norway is the Lutheran. There is no archbishop; but the bishopricks are twelve, six in Denmark, four in Norway, and two in Iceland. The chief see is that of Zealand, which yields about 1000*l.* a year; the other clerical orders are

provosts, or archdeacons, parish priests, and chaplains. The parochial clergy are maintained by their glebes, tithes, and surplice fees; but in Jutland some of the livings do not exceed 20*l.* a year.

GOVERNMENT. Since the revolution of 1660, the Danish government has been an absolute monarchy. That revolution was produced by the obstinacy of the nobility, and consequent enmity of the clergy and burgesses, who perceived no other means of humbling their adversaries.

The Danish government has however been generally conducted with mildness and moderation; and their regal acts pass through many councils who carefully observe the legal forms. The laws are chiefly comprised in the code of Christiern V. who reigned in the end of the seventeenth century.

POPULATION. The population of the Danish dominions is computed at two millions and a half; though there seem little room to infer that it yields to that of Sweden. If we suppose the square contents to be about 180,000 miles, there will only be 12 inhabitants to the square mile. Norway is not supposed to contain more than 700,000 souls, nor Iceland above 50,000, the former only yielding six, the latter one, to the square mile.

ARMY, &c. The army of this kingdom is computed at 70,000 men, of which Denmark supplies about 40,000, and Norway the remainder. The navy, prior to the late engagement with the English off Copenhagen, consisted of 33 ships of the line, manned by about 11,000 seamen, and 5000 marines.

REVENUE. The annual revenue is computed at about one million and a half sterling, being superior to that of Sweden. Denmark contributes 543,554*l.* Norway 290,000*l.* Sleswic and Holstein 300,000*l.* the West India islands 262,000*l.* the toll levied upon ships passing the Sound 122,554*l.* Altona 3,150*l.* The expences of the state amount annually to about 1,050,000*l.* and it is burthened with a debt of 2,600,000*l.*

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. A timid policy has long united this monarchy in alliance with Russia, as a mean of security against Sweden; but more wisdom would appear in a firm alliance with Sweden and Prussia against the exorbitant power of the Russian empire.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the superior Danes differ little from those of the same classes in other parts of Europe. The peasantry continue in a state of vassalage, except those of the crown. They are of course idle, dirty, and dispirited : on the contrary, the Norwegian peasants are spirited, frank, open, and undaunted, yet not insolent ; their usual dress is of a stone colour, with red button holes, and white metal buttons ; and the women often appear only dressed in a petticoat and shift, with a close collar round their throat, and a black sash. Their usual bread, like that of the Scottish peasantry, consists of flat cakes of oatmeal ; which in times of great scarcity is mingled with the white inner rind of trees.

Laplanders are of a small size, generally about four feet, with short black hair, narrow dark eyes, large heads and high cheek bones, a wide mouth and thick lips, and a swarthy complexion. Towards the shore they build huts ; and on the mountains use tents of a flatly conic form, and divided by several rude partitions into apartments for themselves, their servants, and cattle. The sun is here absent for seven weeks ; yet from ten in the forenoon to one in the afternoon there is a kind of twilight even in the shortest days, so that one may read without a candle ; but the stars are very visible, and the moon, when apparent shines all day. The rivers supply salmon, and other fish, a considerable part of the Laplandic food ; but at a festival are seen mutton, or rein deer, and mead. The men wear conic red caps, lined with fur, and a kind of robe of cloth or skin ; the poor sometimes using that of salmon, which appears like a white shagreen. Till recent times they were immersed in paganism, regarding particular mountains and rocks as holy.

LANGUAGE. If we except the Laponic, the languages spoken in the Danish dominions are all sister dialects of the Gothic. The Icelandic is the most ancient and venerable, being esteemed the most pure dialect of the Gothic.

EDUCATION. The silence of travellers and geographers concerning the modes of education pursued in different countries has been more than once regretted in this work ; but the materials are not equally deficient concerning Denmark. Each parish is provided with two or three schools, where children are taught to read and write

their native tongue, and the principles of arithmetic: the schoolmasters are allowed about 12*l.* a year, with a house, and some other advantages. There are besides many Latin schools, maintained at the royal expence; 16 in Holstein; 11 in Sleswic; 19 in Denmark proper, or Jutland, and the isles: but only four in the wide extent of Norway; and two in Iceland. There is also a special seminary for the Laplanders at Bergen; and at Soroe, Odensee, and Altona, there are superior academies of education.

The universities are at Copenhagen and Kiel. The royal academy of sciences was founded in 1742, but has been more distinguished in national antiquities, than natural history. In 1746 was founded the society for the improvement of northern history, also styled the royal society of Icelandic literature. There is another respectable institution at Drontheim, styled the royal society of sciences. These foundations confer honour on the Danish government; and will doubtless contribute to diffuse science, and inspire emulation.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Copenhagen, the chief city of Denmark, stands on the eastern shore of the large and fertile island of Zealand, about 25 British miles to the south of the noted sound, where the vessels that visit the Baltic pay a small tribute to Denmark. It is the best built city in the north; for, though Petersburg present more superb edifices, yet Copenhagen is more uniform; the houses being mostly of brick, but a few of freestone from Germany. The streets are rather narrow but are well paved. It is regularly fortified, the circumference being between four and five miles, and the inhabitants about 90,000. The harbour is spacious and convenient, having on the south the isle of Amak, peopled by the descendants of a colony from East Friesland, to whom the island was granted by Christian II. to supply his queen with vegetables, cheese and butter, a destination still retained.

Next in dignity, though not in population, is Bergen, the capital of Norway, founded in the year 1070. It is seated in the centre of a valley, forming a semicircle round a small gulph of the sea. On the land side it is defended by mountains; and on the other by several fortifications. All the churches and many of the houses are of stone. The castle and cathedral are remarkable edifices. The chief

trade is in fish, hides, timber, &c. The population is computed at 19,000.

The third city of Denmark, and indeed the second in population, is Altona on the Elbe, within a gun-shot of Hamburgh, originally a village of the parish of Ottensen; but in 1640 it became subject to Denmark, and was constituted a city in 1664. In 1713 it was almost entirely reduced to ashes by the Swedes; but its commerce was afterwards so much fostered by the Danish sovereigns, as a diminutive rival of Hamburgh, that it is computed to contain 25,000 inhabitants.

EDIFICES. The chief public edifices are in the cities. The castle and palaces of Cronberg, and the two other royal villas in Zealand, do not merit a particular description, the buildings and gardens being generally in an antiquated taste.

INLAND NAVIGATION. The chief inland navigation of Denmark is the canal of Kiel, so called from a considerable town in the north of Holstein. This canal is intended to unite the Baltic with the river Eydar, which flows into the German sea. The extent of this important canal is about 20 British miles and a half; the breadth 100 feet at top and 54 at bottom; the least depth is about 10 feet, so as to admit vessels of about 120 tons. It was begun in July 1777, and was finished in 1785.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. At Copenhagen are what are called the royal manufactures, in which Mr. Marshall says that 400 looms were employed, from the finest woollen cloth used at court, to that worn by the soldiery. Other manufactures have also been recently encouraged by the crown, which has paid more attention to commerce and agriculture than to the arts and sciences. The chief exports of Denmark consist of native products. Jutland with the isles, Sleswic, and Holstein, generally export corn to a considerable amount; and the horses and cattle of the latter province furnish a supply to Holland. The chief products of Norway are wood, hides (chiefly those of the goat), with silver, copper, and iron; while Iceland exports dried fish, falcons and hawks, and eider-down. The commerce of this kingdom has been greatly improved since the acquisition of Altona, and the opening of the Kiel navigation. The colonies in the East and West Indies also supply some resources.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The kingdom of Denmark proper, may be considered as possessing a humid and rather temperate climate. Yet the winter is occasionally of extreme severity, and the sea is impeded with ice. Norway, chiefly extending along the west side of the Scandinavian Alps, exposed to the vapours from the Atlantic, is not so cold a region as might be conceived. Finmark indeed feels the utmost rigour of winter; while in Iceland, on the contrary, that season is unexpectedly moderate, so as generally to permit the natives to cut turf even in January.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. In Holstein and the south of Jutland the agriculture may be compared with that of England; the fields are divided by hedges and ditches in excellent order, and sown with corn and turnips. Farther to the north, cultivation is less perfect. In Norway the portion of arable ground is scanty, and far from sufficient to supply the consumption. That mountainous country is however abundant in pasture and cattle: which, as in Swisserland, are driven to the heights in summer; and a patriotic society has so much encouraged agriculture, that within these fifty years estates have risen near one third in value.

RIVERS. In the kingdom of Denmark proper, the rivulets are numerous; but scarcely a river of any note except the Eydar, the ancient boundary between Denmark and Germany.

The chief river of Norway is the Glom or Glomen, which is not navigable, but full of cataracts and shoals; yet about 50,000 trees are annually floated upon it to Frederickstadt. It springs from the lake of Oresund on the north of the Fœmund, and runs nearly south about 300 British miles.

In Finmark the most considerable river is the Tana, which is followed by the Alten; both rising in the mountains to the north of Swedish Lapland, and flowing into the Arctic ocean.

LAKES. The lakes in the Danish dominions are numerous, the most extensive being in the south of Norway. The lake of Mioss is about 60 British miles in length, but the breadth is in general little considerable, except towards the centre, where it is from 12 to 18 miles: it contains an island about ten miles in circumference, fertile in corn, pasture, and wood. Next is the lake of Rands

or Rands-Sion, which is near fifty miles in length, but not more than two in breadth. The lake of Tyri is a beautiful piece of water, about fifteen miles in length and breadth, diversified with many bays and creeks: the environs are delightful, consisting of corn-fields, fertile meadows, and hanging forests, backed by lofty mountains towering above each other.

MOUNTAINS. Norway is almost wholly an Alpine country; the southern part of the Scandinavian chain running nearly N. and S. and terminating at the province of Romsdal, is called **LANGFIALL**, or the Long Mountains. Hence the part called **DOFRAFIALL** extends towards the east, ending above the lake of Aursund or Oresund; where it again proceeds almost due north. Here also a considerable branch proceeds by Swucku, &c. towards Sweden. The third part of the range, from the north of Oresund and the vicinity of the copper mines of Roras, is called the chain of **KOLEN**, extending between Norway and Swedish Lapland, and afterwards bending in the form of a horse-shoe, on the south of Finmark.

The height of these mountains has been extremely exaggerated. The following have been measured to their bases, or to the next adjacent waters; Areskutan, a solitary mountain of Jæmtland, about four or five Swedish miles from the highest Alps which separate Norway and Sweden, is said to be 6162 English feet above the nearest above Lake Fæmund, and that lake is thought to be 2 or 3000 above the sea; and finally Sylfiællen, on the borders of Jæmtland, is 3132 feet perpendicular from the height to the base.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The botany of Denmark proper does not materially differ from that of the northern provinces of the German empire, which has already been slightly sketched in the account of Prussia. That of Norway will be incorporated with the vegetables of the rest of Scandinavia, under the article Sweden.

There is a great diversity in the animal productions of the Danish dominions. The horses of Norway and Iceland are as remarkable for diminutive size, as those of Holstein are for the contrary quality. Among the more peculiar animals may be first named the rein-deer, com-

mon in Finmark and throughout Lapland. This animal resembles a stag, but is stronger ; and the deep division of his hoofs is adapted to tread on the snow, being suited by Providence to a cold climate, as the camel is to the hot desert. The elk is a more southern animal, and sometimes appears in Norway, which is infested by the bear, the wolf, and the lynx. The lemming, or Norwegian mouse, proceeds from the ridge of Kolen, and sometimes spreads desolation like the locust. These animals appear in vast numbers, proceeding from the mountains towards the sea, and devouring every product of the soil : it would seem that after consuming every thing eatable in their course, they at last devour each other. This singular creature is of a reddish colour, and about five inches in length. Norway also boasts of eagles, and its falcons are reckoned the boldest and most spirited of any in Europe. The salmon supplies a considerable part of the Laplander's food ; and vast numbers are transported on rein-deer from the shores of the Tana. Hares are also common in that remote region, as well as the bear, lynx, and fox ; nor are the glutton and the beaver unknown. About Roras in Norway the latter animal is sometimes found white.

MINERALS. About the year 1645 some gold ore was found near Arindal, of which ducats were struck. The mines of Kongsberg, about 40 British miles to the S. W. of Christiana, having been long reputed the richest in Europe ; and one mass of native silver in the royal cabinet weighs 409 marks, being worth 3000 rix-dollars, or 600*l*. The veins of metal are from half an inch to more than two feet in thickness. These mines were discovered in 1623 by two peasants. They are worked by 36 shafts, and used to yield about 70,000*l*. annually, when 4000 men were employed ; but recently 2400 have removed to the cobalt mines at Fossum, 20 miles to the north, and it is supposed that the produce barely defrays the expence.

The important copper mines of Roras, about 68 British miles S. E. of Drontheim, were discovered in 1644. The veins are from six inches to six ells in thickness ; and the ore of a pale yellow. In general the mines of Roras are very productive, and a source of considerable revenue.

The mines of cobalt at Fossum are a recent discovery. This metal yields smalt, or powder blue, used in painting pottery and porcelain, and in colouring starch ; and the

mine is supposed to produce a clear annual revenue to the crown of about 15,000*l*.

But the iron mines of Norway are esteemed the most profitable. Lead appears in the vicinity of Kongsberg; and there are alum works near Christiana.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. The northern provinces of Norway afford many singular features. The Malstrom, is a remarkable whirlpool off the shore of Norland, which will involve boats, and even ships; nay the bellowing struggles of the whale have not always redeemed him from the danger; the bottom is full of craggy spires, and the noise truly tremendous. The volcanoes of Iceland may also be classed among the grandest features of nature. Among these, Mount Hekla is the most remarkable; it rises to the height of about 5000 feet above the sea. The summit is covered with snow, except some spots where the heat predominates. The craters are numerous, but the eruptions rare; there having only been ten from the year 1104 to 1693, after which it remained quiet till 1765, when it emitted flames and lava. The boiling springs of Iceland present a singular phenomenon; that of Geyser to the north of Skallholdt is the most remarkable, rising from an aperture 19 feet in diameter, and springing at intervals to the height of 50 or even 90 feet.

DANISH ISLANDS.

THE prime seat of the Danish monarchy having ever been in the isles of Zeeland, Funen, Laland, Falster, and the others of that group, they have been considered in the general description of the monarchy. In the east, the farthest isle belonging to Denmark is that of Bornholm, a small but fertile spot.

Off the west coast of Jutland are the isles of Nordstrand, Fora, Sylt, Rom, Fanoe, and others.

The Norwegian coast presents one continued series of small and unimportant islands, most of them indeed uninhabited.

The Norwegian isles are in general mountainous or craggy, like the corresponding coast, with precipitous rocks and a sea from 100 to 300 fathoms deep washing their bases.

The Ferroe isles are an appanage of the Danish crown : they are seventeen in number, and not unfertile, producing some barley, and abundant pasturage for sheep. Small junipers, stunted willows, and birches, alone bear a diminutive image of trees. They were discovered prior to Iceland, in the ninth century ; and export feathers, eider-down, caps, stockings, salted mutton, and tallow. The inhabitants do not exceed 5000.

The large and celebrated island of Iceland may be regarded as 260 British miles in length from the most western cape to the most eastern; and about 200 in breadth from N. to S. but the inhabitants do not exceed 50,000. The government was an aristocratic republic for about 387 years, till in 1261 it submitted to Norway. In the middle of the fourteenth century this isle was greatly depopulated by a pestilence called the Black Death. A volcanic island recently arose to the south of Iceland, but afterwards disappeared. From Iceland a colony passed to Greenland, a short course of about 200 miles ; but the Danish colony in Greenland has been long explored in vain, the eastern coast on which it was settled being since blocked up by ice.

SWEDEN.

SWEDEN, in the native language *Suithood*, and more modernly *Sweirige*, appears to be a very ancient appellation, and is said, by the northern antiquaries, to imply a country whose woods had been burned or destroyed.

EXTENT. The kingdom of Sweden is of very considerable extent, being from the most southern promontory of *Scone* to the northern extremity of *Swedish Lapland*, not less than 1150 British miles in length, and in breadth, from the *Norwegian Alps* to the limits of *Russia*, about 600. The contents in square miles have been computed at 208,912; and the inhabitants being some years ago supposed 2,977,345, there will be 14 to the square mile, including *Swedish Pomerania*, computed at 1440 square miles, and 103,345 inhabitants.

DIVISIONS. The provinces of the *Swedish monarchy* are 28 in number, and may be arranged in the following manner:

Five in *Sweden proper*: three in *W. E. and S. Gothland*; six in *West Norland*; one in *West Bothnia*; six in *Swedish Lapland*; two in *East Bothnia*; four in *Finland*; one in *Swedish Pomerania*.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. As there is no evidence that the *Celts* ever penetrated to *Scandinavia*, the first population appears to have consisted of *Fins*, who, perhaps seven or eight centuries before the *Christian æra*, were supplanted by the *Goths*, mythologically represented as having been conducted by *Odin*, or the god of war. No foreign conquest having since extended hither, the population continues purely *Gothic* in the southern parts; while in the north there are remains of the *Fins*; and above them

the Laplanders, a native diminutive race resembling the Samoieds of the north of Asia ; from whence they seem to have originated.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The following seem to constitute the chief historical epochs of Sweden :

1. The early population by the Fins and Laplanders.
2. The conquest by the Goths.
3. What little knowledge the ancients possessed concerning the south of Scandinavia.
4. The fabulous and traditional history, which begins about the year of Christ 520, and includes the conquest of Sweden by Ivar Vidfatme king of Denmark, about A. D. 760. Hence there is an obscure period till the reign of Biorn I. A. D. 829, commemorated, with his immediate successors, by Adam of Bremen.
5. The conquest of Denmark by Olaf II. about the year 900.
6. The partial conversion of Sweden to Christianity in the reign of Olaf III. A. D. 1000 ; but more than half a century elapsed before Paganism can be considered as finally abandoned, in the reign of Ingi the Pious. A. D. 1066.
7. The accession of the Folkungian branch, about the middle of the thirteenth century.
8. The Swedes discontented with their king Albert of Mecklenburg, in 1382 elected as their sovereign, Margaret heiress of Denmark and Norway. Thus ended the Folkungian race : and by the celebrated treaty of Calmar, A. D. 1397, the three kingdoms of the north were supposed to be united for ever. But after the death of Margaret in 1412, the Swedes began to struggle for their liberty : and in 1449 Karl or Charles VIII. was elected king of Sweden.
9. The struggles between Denmark and Sweden, till the cruel and tyrannic reign of Christiern II. king of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.
10. Tyrants are the fathers of freedom. Gustaf Wase, whom we style Gustavus Vasa, delivers his country from the Danish yoke, after a contest which forms one of the most interesting portions of modern history. The revolt may be considered as having commenced when Gustaf appears at Mora in Dalecarlia, A. D. 1520, and completed three years afterwards, when he entered Stockholm in triumph. Dissatisfied with the power of the clergy, which

had repeatedly subjugated the kingdom of Denmark, this great prince, in 1527, introduced the reformed religion, and died in his seventieth year, September 1560, after a glorious reign of thirty-seven years.

11. The reign of Gustaf Adolph, or Gustavus Adolphus, A. D. 1611—1631. Austria, Spain, and the other Catholic kingdoms, having conspired to extirpate the Protestant religion in Germany, this king was invited to assist the reformed ; and carried his victorious arms to the Rhine and the Danube.

12. The reign of Charles XI. 1660—1697, when the arts and sciences began to flourish, and the power of the kingdom was carried to its utmost height. This reign of solid beneficence was followed by the calamitous sway of that madman Charles XII.

13. After the frantic reign of Charles XII. Sweden sunk into political humiliation ; at one time awed by Russia, and at another cajoled by France.

ANTIQUITIES. The ancient monuments of Sweden consist chiefly of judicial circles, and other erections of unhewn stone, followed by the monuments inscribed with Runic characters, none of which can safely be dated more anciently than the eleventh century.

RELIGION. The religion of Sweden is the Lutheran, and this kingdom has retained an archbishopric with thirteen prelaties. The parishes amount to 2,537. The priests are computed at 1378 ; with 124 vicars, and 192 prepositi, or inspectors. Some of the parishes are very extensive, as that of eastern Bothnia, which is about 150 miles in length by 48 in breadth ; and another parish in Lapland is still larger.

GOVERNMENT. By the act of union, 1789, the constitution of Sweden became an absolute monarchy ; the monarch having arrogated not only the rights of peace and war, and the administration of justice, but the imposition of taxes, without the consent of the diet, which cannot deliberate on any subject till it be proposed by the sovereign. The diet consists of nobles, and landed gentlemen, clergy, burgesses, or deputies of towns, and those of the peasantry. Each of the four states has a speaker ; the archbishop of Upsal being always the speaker of the clergy, while the king nominates the others.

POPULATION. When the great extent of the Swedish territory is considered, the population will appear comparatively small; a circumstance arising in part from the mountainous nature of the country, and in part from the severe climate of the northern districts; Swedish Lapland being supposed not to contain more than 7000 inhabitants. Yet at present the population of the kingdom is thought to exceed 3,000,000. The nobility are so numerous as to be computed at about 2,500 families; while the peasants, the most numerous class, amount to about 2,000,000.

ARMY. The Swedish army consists of national troops, and of foreign infantry, the latter being computed at about 12,000. The total amount of the army may be 48,000; and the soldiers are of distinguished valour and hardihood, and elated with the former fame of the Swedish arms.

NAVY. So fatal were the naval operations of 1792, that the Swedish fleet, which consisted of 30 ships of the line, cannot now display above half that number. In the Baltic, which is full of low coasts and shoals, galleys of a flat construction are found more serviceable than ships of war, and of course great attention is paid to their equipment by Sweden as well as Russia.

REVENUE. The revenue of Sweden is computed at about a million and a half sterling, which is equalled by the expences of the government. The national debt cannot be much less than 10,000,000*l.* sterling.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. The political importance and relations of this kingdom are much diminished since the glorious reign of Gustaf Adolph, and the beneficent sway of Charles XI. Prior to the late revolution in France, Sweden had been the dupe of that crafty cabinet. Of late this alliance seems to be sacrificed to a more useful connexion with Denmark and Prussia, which can alone guard the north of Europe from the progress of the Russian preponderance.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the superior classes in Sweden and even of the peasantry have been so Frenchified (a fatal symptom wherever it appears), that they have been styled the French of the north. It has even changed their complexion, which in the northern latitudes is generally fair, but is here much diversified, being in some provinces extremely brown. The

men are commonly robust and well formed, and the women slender and elegant. The natives of the western province of Dalecarlia retain many ancient customs, and have been distinguished for their courage and probity, since the time of Gustaf Wase.

LANGUAGE. The language of Sweden is a dialect of the Gothic, being a sister of the Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic. In the south of Sweden, which contains the chief mass of population, some German and French words have been adopted; while the Dalecarlian on the N. W. is esteemed a peculiar dialect, perhaps only because it contains more of the ancient terms and idiom.

EDUCATION. The manner of education has, as usual, been neglected by travellers and geographers, though perhaps one of the most important branches in the whole circle of human affairs. Compared with this primary foundation, an enumeration of universities is of small consequence. That of Upsal is the most ancient and renowned, containing about 500 students; while that of Lunden presents about 300. A third is at Abo in Finland, frequented even by students from Russia; and the whole number is computed as equalling that of Upsal. There are besides twelve literary academies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions. The library at Upsal is richly furnished with books remitted by Gustaf Adolph, when his victorious arms penetrated deeply into Germany; Sweden having thus acquired by war the first materials of her literary fame.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, stands in a singular situation, between a creek, or inlet of the Baltic sea, and the lake Mæler. It occupies seven small rocky islands, and the scenery is truly singular and romantic. "A variety of contrasted and enchanting views is formed by numberless rocks of granite, rising boldly from the surface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houses or feathered with wood." Most of the houses are of stone or brick, covered with white stucco: except in the suburbs, where several are of wood painted red, as usual in the country of Sweden. This city was founded about the middle of the thirteenth century, and in the seventeenth century, the royal residence was transferred hither from Upsal. The entrance to the harbour is through a narrow streight, of somewhat diffi-

cult access, especially as there are no tides: and for four months in the year is frozen. It is however deep and capable of receiving a great number of vessels. The royal palace stands in a central and high situation: and there are a castle, an arsenal, and several academies. The manufactures are few, of glass, china, woollen, silk, linen, &c. By the latest accounts the population of Stockholm may be estimated at 80,000.

Next in dignity is Upsal, the only archbishopric, and formerly esteemed the chief city of the kingdom; but at present the inhabitants, exclusive of the students, do not exceed 3000.

Gotheborg, or Gothenburg, in the province of West Gothland, is esteemed the second city in Sweden, having a population of 20,000, though it was only founded by Charles IX. or rather by Gustaf Adolph. Besides considerable commerce, the herring fishery contributes to enrich Gothenburg. The streets are uniform; and the circumference is computed at near three miles.

EDIFICES. Even including the royal palaces, Sweden cannot boast of many splendid edifices. The roads are in general far superior to those of Denmark and Norway, which seem unaccountably neglected, good roads being the very stamina of national improvement.

INLAND NAVIGATION. Of late a laudable attention has been paid to inland navigation; and the chief effort has been to form a canal between Stockholm and Gothenburg. The intention was to conduct an inland route from the Meler Lake to that of Hielmer, and thence to that of Wener; and by the river Gotha, an outlet of the latter, to the Skager Rack and German sea. This grand design is already in some measure completed.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The Swedish manufactures are far from being numerous, consisting chiefly of those of iron and steel; with cloths, hats, watches, and sail cloth. The manufactures of copper and brass, and the construction of ships, also occupy many hands. In 1785, it was computed that 14,000 were employed in those of wool, silk, and cotton. Of native products exported, iron is the most considerable; and it is said that the miners in the kingdom are about 25,600.

The commerce of Sweden rests chiefly on the export of their native products, iron, timber, pitch, tar, hemp and

copper. Herrings also form a considerable article. The chief import is corn of various kinds, particularly rye, Sweden rarely affording a sufficiency for her own consumption; with hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, drugs, silk, wines, &c. Mr. Coxe has published a table of the Swedish commerce, whence it appears that the exports then amounted to 1,368,830*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.* and the imports to 1,008,392*l.* 12*s.* 4½*d.* so that the balance in favour of Sweden was about 360,000*l.*

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The different parts of Sweden present considerable varieties of temperature. The gulph of Bothnia becomes one field of ice; and travellers pass on it from Finland by the isles of Aland. In the most southern provinces, the climate may be compared to that of Scotland, which lies under the same parallel; but the western gales from the Atlantic, which deluge the Scottish Highlands with perpetual rain, and form the chief obstacle to improvement, are little felt. In the north the summer is hot, by the reflection of the numerous mountains, and the extreme length of the days; for at Tornea, in Swedish Lapland, the sun is for some weeks visible at midnight; and the winter in return presents many weeks of complete darkness.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. No country can be diversified in a more picturesque manner, with extensive lakes, large transparent rivers, winding streams, wild cataracts, gloomy forests, verdant vales, stupendous rocks, and cultivated fields. The soil is not the most propitious; but agriculture is conducted with skill and industry, so as much to exceed that of Germany and Denmark. Even Finland presents many rich pastures, and not a few fields of rye, oats, and barley.

RIVERS. Sweden is intersected by numerous rivers, the largest of which are in the native language called Elbs, or Elfs. The most considerable flow from the lakes, without any great length of course; such as the Gotha, the only outlet of the vast lake of Wener, but impeded by many rocks and cataracts. The most important is the river Dahl, consisting of two conjunct streams, which rise in the Norwegian Alps, give name to the province of Dalarn, or Dalecarlia, and, after a course of about 260 British miles, enter the Bothnic gulph; not far from its mouth is a cataract, esteemed little inferior to that of the Rhine at Schaff-

hausen, the perpendicular height being between 30 and 40 feet. The surrounding scenery also assists the effect, which is truly sublime.

Farther to the north, and in Swedish Lapland, are many considerable rivers, which also arise from the Norwegian Alps, and flow into the gulph of Bothnia, after circuits of about 200 miles.

LAKES. Few countries can rival Sweden in the extent and number of lakes, which appear in almost every province. Of these the most important is the Wener, which is about 80 British miles in length by about 50 in breadth, in great part surrounded with forests, and rocks of red granite. It receives 24 rivers, abounds with fish, and contains many romantic isles.

Next is the Weter, a lake of equal length but inferior in breadth, which seldom exceeds twelve miles. This lake being surrounded with mountains is particularly subject to storms in the stillest weather, whence arise many popular tales and superstitions.

The lake Meler, at the conflux of which with the Baltic is founded the city of Stockholm, is about sixty British miles in length by eighteen in breadth, and is sprinkled with picturesque isles. And to the S. W. is the lake of Hielmar, more remarkable for its proposed utility in the inland navigation than for its extent.

MOUNTAINS. Sweden may be in general regarded as a mountainous country ; in which respect it is strongly contrasted with Denmark proper, or Jutland, and the isles. The chief mountains are in that elevated chain which divides Sweden and Swedish Lapland from Norway ; from which successive branches run in a S. E. direction.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Under the direction of the colleges established for the improvement of agriculture, the peasants have, at length, in a great measure, corrected the natural sterility of their country ; and, in favourable seasons, they now raise grain enough to supply the wants of the inhabitants. The fields in summer are covered with a beautiful verdure, enameled with flowers, and produce great quantities of currants, raspberries, strawberries, and other small fruit. Ostrogothia bears large crops of rye, wheat, barley, oats, beans and peas.

Of timber trees there are but few species ; the most common, and those which constitute the wealth of Scan-

dinavia, are the Norway pine, and the fir : of these there are immense forests spread over the rocky mountains, and deepening with their sullen hue the whole horizon ; thousands of giant growth are every winter overthrown by the storms, and allowed to perish where they fall from the impossibility of transporting them to the sea ; others in more accessible situations, are converted to various human uses ; the wood from its lightness and straightness is excellent for masts and yards, and various domestic purposes ; the juice, as tar, turpentine, and pitch, is almost of equal value with the wood ; and the inner bark, mixed with rye meal, furnishes a coarse bread in time of scarcity. The mountain ash, the alder, the birch, and dwarf birch, and several kinds of willow, are found in the whole peninsula ; the lime, the elm, the ash, and the oak, though growing with freedom in the southern parts, are incapable of withstanding the rigours of a Lapland winter.

The Swedish horses are commonly small but spirited ; and are preserved, by lying without litter, from some of the numerous diseases to which this noble animal is subject. The cattle and sheep do not seem to present any thing remarkable. Among the wild animals may be named the bear, the lynx, the wolf, the beaver, the otter, the glutton, the flying squirrel, &c. The rein-deer of Lapland is briefly described in the account of the Danish monarchy. Sweden also presents one or two singular kinds of falcons, and an infinite variety of game.

MINERALS. Sweden has some gold and silver mines, though they are not highly valued. Its copper mines are rich : the chief are in the province of Dalecarlia. On the east of the town of Fahlun is a great copper mine supposed to have been worked for near a thousand years. The metal is not found in veins, but in large masses ; and the mouth of the mine presents an immense chasm, nearly three quarters of an English mile in circumference, the perpendicular depth being about 1020 feet. About 1200 miners are employed. Copper is also wrought in Jemtland ; and at Ryddarhytte is found iron. Nor is Sweden deficient in lead : but iron forms the principal product, and the mine of Danamora is particularly celebrated for the superiority of the metal, which in England is called Oregrund iron, because it is exported from Oregrund an adjacent port, where the Bothnic gulph joins the Baltic. Berg-

man describes the iron mine of Taberg in Smoland, as consisting of beds of ore, of a blackish brown, separated by beds of mould without any stone. This enormous mineral pile is rivalled by an entire mountain of iron ore near Tornea, in Lapland; and at Luleo the mountain of Gellivar forms a mass of rich iron ore, of a blackish blue, extending like an irregular vein for more than a mile, and in thickness from 300 to 400 fathoms.

SWEDISH ISLANDS.

Sweden possesses many islands, scattered in the Baltic sea and gulph of Bothnia. Rugen, the most southerly, affords as it were a passage to the Swedish possessions in Pomerania. It was annexed to Sweden by the treaty of Westphalia, and it is not a little productive in grain and cattle. Farther to the north east is the long island of Oland, or Oeland, in length about seventy miles, in breadth about six. The horses are small but strong, and the forests abound with deer, nor is the wild boar unknown. Next occurs the island of Gothland, about seventy miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; a fertile district remarkable for an excellent breed of sheep. The isles of Aland mark the entrance of the Bothnic gulph, deriving their name from the largest, which is about forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, containing about 9000 inhabitants, who speak the Swedish language, though included in the government of Finland.

PORTUGAL.

THE ancient name of this country was Lusitania; that of Portugal is of recent origin. In the Roman period there was a town called *Calle*, now Oporto, near the mouth of the river Douro; and, this having been eminently distinguished, acquired the name of *Porto Calle*; which, as the country was gradually recovered from the Moors, was improperly extended to the whole kingdom.

EXTENT. Portugal extends about 360 British miles in length by 120 in breadth; and is supposed to contain about 27,280 square miles, which, with a population of 1,838,879, will yield 67 inhabitants to the mile square.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of Portugal may be traced in that of Spain, and has undergone the same revolutions.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The historical epochs of so recent a state cannot be numerous; nor is it necessary to recur to those ancient events, which more properly belong to the general history of Spain.

1. The kings of Asturias subdue some of the Moorish chiefs of the north of Portugal. In 1054 Ferdinand king of Castile extends his conquests to Coimbra; and on sharing his dominions among his sons, Don Garcia, along with Galicia, had a part of Portugal, whence he is styled on his tomb, A. D. 1090, *Rex Portugalie et Gallicie*.

2. Alphonso VI. brother of Garcia, and king of Castile, having favourably admitted several French princes to his court, among them was Henry, whom he nominated count of Portugal, adding his natural daughter Theresa in marriage. The count signalized himself by many victories

over the Moors, and died in 1112, leaving a son Alphonso I. of Portugal, who in the year 1139 gains an illustrious victory over five Moorish princes, and is acclaimed king by his troops upon the field of battle.

3. Alphonso III. about the year 1254, completes the conquest of Algarve.—Portugal continued to be fortunate in a succession of great princes ; but the wars against the Moors were unhappily followed by those against the kings of Castile.

4. Portugal was to attract the admiration of Europe by her commercial discoveries. In 1415 John the Great, king of Portugal, carrying his arms into Africa, and taking the city of Ceuta, an impulse was given to the national spirit ; and in 1420 we find the Portuguese in possession of Madeira. The Portuguese discoveries in Africa proceeded under John's successors, Edward, and Alphonso V. and the auspices of Prince Henry, till, in the reign of John II. they extended to the Cape of Good Hope ; and in that of Emanuel, Vasco de Gama opened the East Indies.

5. John III. admits the inquisition, A. D. 1526 ; since which event the Portuguese monarchy has rapidly declined.

6. Sebastian king of Portugal leads a powerful army on an idle expedition into Africa, and is slain in battle. He is succeeded by his uncle Cardinal Henry ; who dying two years afterwards, Portugal was seized by Philip II. king of Spain, 1580.

7. The revolution of 1640, which placed the house of Braganza on the throne of Portugal. Little of consequence has since arisen, except the earthquake at Lisbon in 1755, and the recent intermarriages with Spain, which promise, at no remote period, to unite the kingdoms.

ANTIQUITIES. The antiquities of Portugal consist chiefly of Roman monuments, with a few Moorish remains. In the farthest north is an extensive series of arches, formerly a Roman aqueduct. Among the antiquities of the middle ages may be named the noble monastery of Batalha, in Portuguese Estramadura, about 60 miles to the north of Lisbon, founded by John I. at the close of the fourteenth century, in consequence of the great victory over the king of Castile, one of the most noble monuments of what is called the Gothic style of architecture.

RELIGION. The religion of Portugal is the Roman Catholic ; and a strict observance of its duties forms one

of the national characteristics. There are two archbishoprics, and ten episcopal sees : and there is besides a patriarch. The number of parishes approaches four thousand.

GOVERNMENT, &c. The constitution of Portugal is a monarchy, absolute and hereditary ; yet in case of the king's demise without male issue, he is succeeded by his next brother ; whose sons have however no right to the throne till confirmed by the states. The chief articles of the constitution are contained in the statutes of Lamego, issued by Alphonso I. in 1145. The laws have few particularities : they are lenient in cases of theft, which must be repeated four times before death be the punishment.

DIVISIONS AND POPULATION. Portugal is divided into six provinces. Two being on the north of the kingdom, two in the middle, and two in the south. The population of the whole is, according to Boetticher, 1,838,879 ; but by Murphy's statement, 2,588,470.

ARMY, &c. The army is only computed at about 24,000 ; and the militia might perhaps amount to as great a number. The naval power, once considerable, is reduced to thirteen sail of the line, and fifteen frigates.

REVENUES. The revenue is calculated at 2,000,000*l.* sterling, and the gold of Brasil mostly passes to England in return for articles of industry.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. Portugal retains small influence in the political scale of Europe. Her commerce is almost wholly dependent on England ; but by land she is exposed to no danger except from Spain, or by the consent of Spain. The union of the two countries would doubtless be advantageous to both ; but might prove detrimental to English commerce, and the weight of England in the Portuguese councils would infallibly subside.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the Portuguese are discriminated into those of the northern and southern provinces, the former being more industrious and sincere, the latter more polite and indolent. In general the Portuguese are an elegant race, with regular features embrowned by the sun, and dark expressive eyes. The prejudices of nobility are as common and pernicious in Portugal as in Spain ; nor is that general intercourse found which imparts knowledge and vigour to society. Ladies of rank still imitate the industry of their

ancestors in spinning flax from the distaff: and the oriental manner of sitting on cushions on the floor is often practised. The dress resembles the Spanish. The peasantry remain miserable vassals of the Fidalgos, or gentlemen.

LANGUAGE. The Portuguese language is more remote from that of Castile than might be expected from the circumstances. As the royal race was of French extract, it is supposed that many of the words are derived from the Limosin and other dialects of the S. of France. It is a grave and solemn speech.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Education seems greatly neglected in Portugal, though the university of Coimbra be of ancient date. That of Evora was founded in 1553; and a college at Masra in 1772. The royal academy is of recent erection, and the design aspires to considerable public utility.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Lisbon, the capital city of Portugal, was called by the ancients Ulyssippo, and the foundation fabulously ascribed to Ulysses. The situation is grand, on the north side of the mouth of the Tago, and is sheltered on the N. W. by a ridge of hills. The haven is capacious and excellent. The population is computed at about 200,000. The earthquake of 1755, a dreadful and memorable epoch among the inhabitants, has contributed to the improvement of the city, the new streets being broad and well paved, resembling those in the west end of London. The patriarchal church is singularly magnificent; and the revenue is computed at 114,000*l*. The English have an open burial ground. The royal monastery of Belem, founded by king Emanuel in 1499, stands about five miles S. W. of Lisbon; and to the north is a noble modern aqueduct completed in 1732.

The next considerable and only town we shall notice is Oporto; seated on the N. side of the river Douro, about five miles from the sea, upon the declivity of a hill, so that the houses rise like an amphitheatre. The streets are however narrow, and the houses ill constructed. The churches are of little note: the British factory is a large and neat building. The chief exports are wine, oranges, lemons, &c. and linen cloth to the American colonies in Brasil.

EDIFICES. The chief edifices of Lisbon are the cathedral, and monasteries, formerly mentioned. The no-

bility, as in Spain, crowd to the capital, whence the country is little decorated with villas. Under this head may be also classed a noble aqueduct of two leagues, which conveys water from the rock of Liquor for the use of the city. Under the grand arch of this beautiful edifice, a frigate might pass in full sail.

INLAND NAVIGATION. Portugal seems to have paid no attention whatever to the construction of canals; nor perhaps are they found necessary, in a country abounding with rivers, and bordered with an ample extent of sea coast.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The Portuguese manufactures are few and unimportant; hats and paper have been lately fabricated at Lisbon; but the chief manufactories are those of woollen cloth at Covilham, Portalegre, and Azeitaon.

A considerable commercial intercourse subsists with England; but the balance in favour of the latter appears to be about 400,000*l.* sterling: and Ireland gains by her exports about 63,000*l.* annually. The Falmouth packets bring frequent remittances of bullion, coin, diamonds, and other precious stones; and for a considerable time the Portuguese gold money was current in England. Besides woollens and hardware, England transmits to Portugal large cargoes of salted and dried fish, the last article to the annual amount of about 200,000*l.* The exports of Portugal are chiefly wine, oil, oranges, lemons, figs, sugar, cotton, cork, drugs, and tobacco. Portugal also maintains a considerable trade with her flourishing colony in Brasil, the inhabitants of which are computed at 900,000. The articles exported to America are chiefly woollens, linens, stuffs, gold and silver lace, fish dried in Portugal, hams, sausages, &c. with glass manufactured at Marinha. Brasil returns gold, silver, pearls, precious stones of various descriptions, rice, wheat, maize, sugar, molasses, ornamental timber, and many other articles rather curious than important. The drugs, spices, and articles used in dying must not however be omitted. The trade with the East Indies is inconsiderable; and that with the other European nations scarcely deserving notice. Some trade is also carried on with the American states.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Portugal is familiarly known to be most excellent and salutary. At

Lisbon the days of fair weather are computed to amount to 200 in the year ; and those of settled rain seldom exceed 80. The medial heat is generally about 60°.

RIVERS. The chief rivers and mountains of Portugal have been already enumerated in the description of Spain.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The vegetable and animal productions of Portugal may be regarded as the same with that of Spain. The horses are however much inferior. The sheep are also neglected, and far from numerous ; but swine abound, and are fed with excellent acorns, so that the Portuguese hams are deservedly esteemed.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of Portugal has been almost as much neglected as the agriculture. In the two northern provinces are seen immense mines, supposed to have been worked by the Romans. The mouth of the largest, cut through the solid rock, is a mile and a half in circumference, and upwards of 500 feet deep ; at the bottom it measures 2,400 feet by 1,400. Many subterranean passages pierce the mountain like a labyrinth, and the whole works are on the grandest scale. Small veins of gold have been observed in the mountains of Goes and Estralla ; and it is still found in the sand of some streams. Under the domination of the Spaniards, a mine of silver was worked, not far from Braganza, so late as the year 1628. Tin was also found in various parts of the northern provinces. There are lead mines at Mursa, Lamego, and Cogo ; copper is found near Elvis and in other districts. The iron mines are neglected, from a deficiency of fuel ; though coal be found in different parts of the kingdom, and that of Buarcos supply the royal foundery at Lisbon. Emery is found near the Douro ; and many beautiful marbles abound in this kingdom. Fullers earth occurs near Guimerans. Portugal also boasts of antimony, manganese, bismuth, and arsenic ; and near Castello-Branco are mines of quicksilver. Rubies have been discovered in Algarve ; jacinths in the rivers Cavado and Bellas ; beryl or aquamarine in the mountain of Estralla.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. On the north bank of the river Douro is a high massy cliff, with engraved letters or hieroglyphics, stained with vermilion and blue : beneath which is a grotto supposed to abound with bitumen.

SWISSERLAND.

THE provinces now known by the collective name of Swisserland, were in ancient times distinguished by several appellations. By the Romans they were regarded as a part of Gaul ; and the chief possessors were the Helvetii on the west, and the Rhæti on the east ; the chief city of the Helvetians being Aventicum, now Avenche. On its emancipation, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, from the house of Austria, first appeared the modern denomination of Swisserland, either derived from the canton of Schweitz, distinguished in that revolution, or from the general name of Schweitzers, given by the Austrians to this alpine people.

EXTENT. In length from east to west, Swisserland extends about 200 British miles ; and in breadth, from north to south, about 130. The contents in square miles have been estimated at 14,960 ; but the greater part is lost to human industry, consisting of vast rocks, partly covered with eternal ice and snow. Even of this country, the boundaries are rather arbitrary than natural ; though on the west mount Jura forms a grand division from France ; and on the south the Pennine Alps, a partial barrier from Italy. On the east lies the Austrian territory of Tyrol, and on the north is Swabia, containing, as it were an excrescence of Swisserland on the other side of the Rhine, the small canton of Schaffhausen.

DIVISIONS. The Swiss league, before the French invasion, consisted of thirteen independent confederated cantons, together with their subjects and allies. Six of the cantons are Protestant, and seven Roman Catholic.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population is thought to have been Celtic; yet it would be difficult, either from history or from ancient appellations, to trace the residence of the Celts in Swisserland; and there is every reason on the contrary to believe that the Helvetians were a Gothic race, a very ancient colony of Germans.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The chief historical epochs may be arranged in the following order:

1. The wars with the Romans; the subjugation of the Helvetii and Rhæti, and the subsequent events till the decline of the Roman empire in the west.

2. The irruption of the Alemanni in the beginning of the fourth century, who are by some supposed to have extirpated the ancient Helvetians.

3. The subjugation of the western part of Swisserland as far as the river Reuss by the Franks, who annexed that portion of Burgundy. The Grisons on the east were subject to Theodoric, and other kings of Italy.

4. The conversion of the country to Christianity by the Irish monks Columbanus, Gallus, and others, in the beginning of the seventh century.

5. The invasion of Alemannia by the Huns in the year 909; and the subsequent contests with these barbarians till the middle of that century.

6. About the year 1030 the provinces which now constitute Swisserland began to be regarded as a part of the empire of Germany; and in the course of two centuries they gradually became subject to the house of Hapsburg.

7. The commencement of the Swiss emancipation, A. D. 1307; and the subsequent struggles with the house of Austria.

8. The gradual increase of the confederacy, the Burgundian and Swabian wars; and the contests with the French in Italy.

9. The history of the reformation in Swisserland.

10. The insurrection of the peasants of Bern, in the middle of the seventeenth century.

11. The dissolution of the confederacy by the French invasion, A. D. 1798, and its complete subjection, in 1803, to the dominion of France.

ANTIQUITIES. The ancient monuments of Swisserland are not numerous, consisting chiefly of a few remains of the Romans, at Aventicum and Vindernissa, and

at Baden, of the ancient *Thermæ Helveticæ*. Of the middle ages are many castles, churches, and monasteries ; among the latter that of the abbey of St. Gal, the library of which supplied the manuscripts of three or four classical authors, no where else to be found.

RELIGION. The religion of the Swiss countries is in some, the Roman Catholic, in others, the Reformed. Of the former persuasion are Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, cantons which founded the liberty of the country, with Zug, Lucerne, Friburg, Solothurn, part of Glarus, and Appenzel. In these are found six bishoprics, and one metropolitan see. The reformed cantons are of the Calvinistic or Presbyterian persuasion, being the rich and extensive canton of Bern, with Zurich, Basel, Schaffhausen, the greatest part of Glarus, and some portions of Appenzel. The country of the Grisons is chiefly Protestant ; and Val-lais, an ally of the thirteen cantons, has been the scene of atrocious persecutions on account of its disaffection from the Catholic faith ; but in general the two persuasions live in the most amiable unity and moderation.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Swisserland has been a fertile theme of discussion. The most powerful cantons of Bern, Zurich, Lucerne, and Friburg, had retained much of the feudal aristocratic form. The other cantons were more democratic ; but the recent subversion of the government by the French has for some time reduced Swisserland to a dependent province, with new divisions and arrangements. The laws of course partook of the nature of the government of each canton ; and under the aristocracies were sufficiently jealous and severe. Yet Swisserland was one of the happiest countries in Europe, and recommended itself to the most intelligent observers equally by moral and by physical grandeur and beauty.

POPULATION. The population of this interesting country is generally computed at 2,000,000, or about 130 to the square mile. But so large a portion is uninhabitable, that on a subtraction of such parts the number might be about 200 to the square mile.

ARMY. The military force was reckoned at about 20,000 ; but in the late struggle with France this force appears to have been divided, and little effectual. The Swiss regiments in foreign service, mostly that of France, were

computed at 29 ; but they returned weakened in frame and morals, and seldom proved serviceable to the state.

REVENUE. The ruinous effects of French extortion cannot be divined, but the revenue of Swisserland was formerly computed at somewhat more than a million sterling, arising from moderate taxation, from tolls, national domains, and foreign subsidies.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. The political importance and relations of Swisserland are immersed in those of the French republic. Should the Swiss emancipate their country, their chief object would be protection against the power of France ; and in this view nothing could be so serviceable as a strict alliance with Austria. Their proximity to France introduced the language, the manners, and intrigues of that country, and these, united with their jealousy of Austria, were the cause of their ruin.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. Amidst the general corruption of manners, those of the Swiss have long excited applause, from their moral uniformity and frank independence. The houses are generally constructed of wood, in the most simple form, with staircases on the outside ; yet their appearance singularly coincides with the picturesque character of the country. The dress of the lower ranks is little subject to the laws of fashion, and in many cantons there are regulations to prevent idle ornament. Among the superior classes the manners may be considered as partly German and partly French : but the latter have too much preponderated. In general the Swiss are remarkable for an intense attachment to their native country ; and there are few who do not return there to terminate their existence. This impression is almost irresistible, and liable to be awakened by the most minute circumstances. Hence in the French armies the tune called the *Rances des Vaches*, often sung by the Swiss milkmaids when they went to the pastures, was carefully interdicted, because it melted the rough Swiss soldier into tears, and seldom failed to produce desertion.

LANGUAGE. The language of Swisserland is a dialect of the German ; but the French is much diffused, and is often employed by their best authors. In the most southern parts, bordering on Italy, the Italian is the common tongue.

EDUCATION. The important subject of education has been little illustrated by the travellers into Swisserland; but as they testify their surprise at the knowledge generally prevalent among the peasantry, there is reason to infer that this useful province is not neglected. There is an university of some reputation at Geneva, and another at Basel; with colleges at Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne.

CITIES AND TOWNS. In enumerating the chief cities and towns of Swisserland, according to the comparative standard of population, Basel will engage the first attention, being supposed to contain 14,000 souls. This city stands in a pleasant situation upon the banks of the Rhine, here broad, deep, and rapid. It crowns both banks, and is united by a bridge. The cathedral is an ancient Gothic edifice, containing the tomb of the great Erasmus; and the university has produced many illustrious men.

Bern claims the next rank to Basel, possessing a population of about 13,000. This city is of singular neatness and beauty, the streets being broad and long, and the houses of grey stone resting on arcades. There are several streams and fountains; and the river Aar almost surrounds the city. Bern contains several libraries and collections of natural curiosities.

Zurich is the third in rank among the Swiss cities, situated on a large lake, amidst a populous and fertile country, which produces abundance of wine for domestic consumption. The college and plans of education are respectable; and the public library contains some curious manuscripts.

Lausanne contains about 9000 inhabitants and is deservedly celebrated for the beauty of its situation, though in some spots deep and rugged. The church is a magnificent Gothic building, having been a cathedral, while the Pays du Vaud was subject to the house of Savoy.

EDIFICES. The chief edifices of Swisserland are in the cities, and have been already noticed.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. Commerce and manufactures do not much flourish in this inland region. Cattle constitute the chief produce of the country; and some of the cheese forms an export of luxury. The chief linen manufactures were at St. Gal. Printed cottons, and watches also form considerable articles of sale, nor are silk manufactures unknown in Swisserland.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Swisserland is deservedly celebrated as salubrious and delightful. From its southern position considerable heat might be expected; but this, though sufficient to mature the grape, is attempered by the cold gales from the Alps and glaciers. When the sun descends beyond Mount Jura, on a summer evening, the Alpine summits long reflect its splendour, and the lakes for near an hour assume the appearance of burnished gold. The winter is however in some parts extremely severe; and the summer heat in the deep vales sometimes oppressive.

RIVERS. The rivers of Swisserland are numerous; and among the most sublime scenes of this country must be classed the sources of the Rhine and Rhone, two of the most important streams in Europe.

The Rhine rises in the country of the Grisons, from a glacier upon the summit of mount Badur, at the head of a valley, called the Rhinewald. From its source the Rhine pervades or borders Swisserland, for about the space of 200 British miles, running N. E. to the lake of Constance, whence it bends W. to Basel; where it begins its long northern course.

The Aar arises in the Alp called the Grimsel, bending its course to the N. W. till it arrives near Arberg, it afterwards turns N. E. receives the Reuss and the Limmat, and joins the Rhine opposite to Waldshut, after a course of about 150 British miles.

The Reuss, which divides Swisserland into two almost equal parts, eastern and western, springs from the lake of Lucendro on the N. W. of St. Gothard. The Reuss joins the Aar, after a course of about 80 British miles.

The Rhone, a noble stream, can only be regarded as a Swiss river prior to its entering the lake of Geneva, after a course of about 90 British miles through that extensive vale called the Vallais. This river rises in mount Furca, the source being rather warm, and about 5400 feet above the sea.

LAKES. The lakes of Swisserland are numerous and interesting. The most considerable are those of Constance on the N. E. and Geneva on the S. W. The former is about 45 British miles in length, and in some places 15 in breadth.

The lake of Geneva extends in the form of a crescent, about 40 British miles in length, and nine at its greatest breadth. The beauties of this lake have been celebrated by Rousseau, but would be considerably increased if it were sprinkled with islands. Next to these are the lakes Maggiore, and Lugano. The lakes of Neufchatel and Zurich and some others of inferior note.

MOUNTAINS. The mountains of Swisserland are the most celebrated in Europe; and are supposed to yield in height to none, except those of South America. In a general point of view the Alps extend, in a kind of semi-circular form, from the gulph of Genoa through Swisserland, which contains their centre and highest parts; and terminate in the Carnic Alps on the N. of the Adriatic sea. This chain has been divided into different portions, known by distinct appellations. The maritime Alps are those which arise from the gulph of Genoa. Mont Genevre, whence springs the river Durance, was anciently named the *Alpis Cottia*, from *Cottius* a prince who resided at Suza. Farther to the N. were the *Alpes Graiæ*, now the little St. Bernard. The *Alpes Penninæ* consisted of the great St. Bernard, Mont Blanc, and the grand chain extending on the S. of the Rhone, to the N. of modern Piedmont: the eastern part being also styled the *Lepontine Alps*, from a people who inhabited that region which gives origin to the Rhone and Tesino. The *Rhætian Alps* extended through the Grisons and Tyrol, terminating in the Carnic, or Julian Alps. That chain which pervades Swisserland, from mount Santez in the S. W. towards the sources of the Irm on the N. E. was known by the appellation of the *Helvetian Alps*. Some writers admit of more minute divisions, as the *Tridentine Alps* above Trent; and the *Noric Alps* above the source of the river Tagliamento. The extent of this vast course of mountains may be computed at about 550 British miles. Of all these stupendous works of nature Mont Blanc is the highest, being 15,662 feet above the level of the sea.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. In no country, of which so great a proportion consists of lakes and mountains, can agriculture be carried to a great extent. But there is no want of industry, and the grain seems sufficient for domestic consumption. Barley is cultivated even to the edge of the glaciers; oats in regions a little

warmer ; rye in those still more sheltered ; and spelt in the warmest parts. Yet in general the produce does not exceed five for one ; and it has been found necessary to support public granaries, in case of any deficiency. The country being fitted by nature for pasturage, the chief dependence of the Swiss is on his cattle. A considerable quantity of flax is also cultivated, and tobacco has been lately introduced. Vines are cultivated in some of the districts. There is also abundance of fruit, apples, pears, plums, cherries, filberts ; together with mulberries, peaches, and other products of a warmer climate. In the Alpine valleys, and along the course of the torrents, vegetation assumes a stately appearance ; the juniper, the savine, the stone-pine, and alder, broken by nature into irregular thickets, diversify the scene.

On the declivities of the mountains, commence the forests of larch, of pine, and fir, intermixed here and there with the yew, the mountain ash, and the birch.

Where the firwoods cease, the subalpine regions begin, diversified with meadows and corn fields, and forests of deciduous trees. The oak, the elm, the beech, the ash, the lime, and the hornbeam are the most prevalent, and the borders of the streams are shaded by poplars and willows. The plants are chiefly those which occur in the north and midland parts of France and Germany.

The horses of Swisserland are esteemed for vigour and spirit : and the cattle attain great size. Among the animals peculiar to the Alps may be first named the ibex, or rock goat. This animal resembles the common goat ; but the horns of the male are extremely long and thick. The hair is long, and ash coloured, with a black list along the back. The ibex will mount a perpendicular rock of fifteen feet, at three springs, bounding like an elastic body struck against a hard substance.

Another singular animal is the chamois, which is commonly seen in herds of twenty or thirty with a centinel who alarms them by a shrill cry. The colour is yellowish brown ; but they sometimes occur speckled. The food is the lichen with shoots of pine or fir. The marmot is common in the Swiss mountains. In summer they feed on alpine plants, and live in societies, digging dwellings in the ground for summer, and others for winter. About the beginning of October, having provided hay, they retreat to their holes,

where they remain torpid till the spring. The size is between that of the rabbit and the hare. Among Alpine birds may be named the vulture, called also the golden or bearded vulture. It inhabits the highest Alps, forming its nest in inaccessible rocks, and preying on the chamois, white hare, marmot, and sometimes on kids and lambs.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of this interesting country is not so important as we might be led to infer from its mountainous nature. Gold, copper and lead have been found in small quantities; but the chief mines are those of iron in the country of Sargans. In the canton of Bern, there are valuable quarries of rock salt: and it is said that coal and native sulphur are not unknown. Rock crystal forms perhaps the chief export of Swisserland, being sometimes found in such large pieces as to weigh seven or eight hundred weight.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. To enumerate the natural curiosities of Swisserland would be to describe the country. The Alps, the glaciers, the vast precipices, the descending torrents, the sources of the rivers, the beautiful lakes and cataracts, are all natural curiosities of the greatest singularity, and most sublime description. Of late the glaciers have attracted particular attention; but those seas of ice, intersected with numerous deep fissures, owing to sudden cracks which resound like thunder, must yield in sublimity to those stupendous summits clothed with ice and snow, the latter often descending in what are called avalanches, or prodigious balls, which, gathering as they roll, sometimes overwhelm travellers and even villages.

On the north of Swisserland the Rhine, near the village of Nauhasen, descends in a cataract of 40 feet amidst black and horrid rocks. Among the milder charms of the country may be named the lakes; and the small lake of Kandel Steig bears at one extremity the charms of summer, while the other presents the glaciers and pomp of winter. Numerous rills, which descend from the mountains, often fall in cascades of great beauty, among which that of Staubbach is computed at 900 feet, over a rock as perpendicular as a wall.

GERMAN STATES.

IN describing an extensive country, subdivided into many states, it becomes indispensable to give a general idea of the whole, before the respective territories are delineated. The geography of Germany is the most perplexed of any region on the globe, the great divisions, or *circles*, being now interwoven, and almost antiquated, while no modern and more rational distribution has yet appeared.

EXTENT. Germany, considered in its modern limits, extends about 600 British miles in length, from the isle of Rugen in the north, to the southern limits of the circle of Austria. The modern breadth, from the Rhine to the eastern boundary of Silesia, is about 500 British miles : anciently the breadth extended beyond the Vistula, about 200 miles more to the east.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. This country appears to have been full of extensive forests, even in the Roman period, and of course to have been in many parts thinly peopled. The Cimbri, or modern Celts, possessed several tracts in the south, as they certainly occupied a large portion of the N. W. The N. E. of Germany was held by the Finnish nations ; but both were obliged to yield to the invasion of the Scythians or Goths who migrated westward from their original seats on the Euxine, long before the Roman interference in the affairs of those countries.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. Some of the grand historical epochs have already been mentioned, in describing those large portions of Germany, the Austrian and Prussian dominions ; and some of the others may be briefly hinted in the account of the respective states. Suffice it here to mention : 1. The ancient period, chiefly resting on

the account of the Roman and Francic historians. 2. The middle period. In the end of the eighth century, Charlemagne, having subdued the Saxons and other parts of Germany and Italy, was in the year 800 proclaimed emperor of the West. His successor Louis le Debonnaire held the empire with France ; but his son Lothaire I. was restricted to Germany. After many intestine commotions Henry duke of Saxony was chosen emperor in 918, and this line failing 1024, was followed by that of Franconia. In the twelfth century arose the factions of the Guelphs and Gibelines, and, after long contests, the sceptre was at length assigned to the house of Austria in 1273 ; and after some deviations continued to remain in that family. 3. The modern period, which may be traced from Charles V. or from his grandfather Maximilian.

ANTIQUITIES. The antiquities of Germany consist chiefly of a few Roman remains in the S. and W. It would be endless to enumerate the churches founded by Charlemagne ; or the numerous castles erected by powerful princes and barons.

RELIGION. The religion of the greater part of Germany may be pronounced to be the Reformed, first introduced into Saxony by Luther. Yet the south continues firmly attached to the Roman Catholic faith, now chiefly supported by the house of Austria.

GOVERNMENT. The government is that of an aristocracy, which elects a monarch, who may be of any family, Catholic, Lutheran, or Calvinist. To consider the constitution at length, which has been called by a German writer "a confusion supported by providence," would be foreign to the nature of this work.

POPULATION, &c. The population of Germany in general is computed at little more than 25,000,000. It was supposed that the empire could, if united, send forth a contingent army of 400,000 ; but such calculations are visionary in the present state of affairs. The revenues, political importance and relations, are now detached, and have already been in a great part considered under the articles of Prussia and Austria. The manners, customs, and dialects vary according to the different states. The Saxon is accounted the purest and most classical idiom of the German tongue ; and the southern dialects of Swabia, Bavaria, and Austria, the most uncouth.

In the descriptions of the Austrian and Prussian dominions are contained many of the eastern provinces of Germany. The part which remains is the western half, naturally divided into two portions by the river Mayn.

RIVERS. Both portions are watered by numerous and important rivers. In the north the Elbe is the most distinguished stream, rising in the Sudetic mountains of Silesia, and entering the sea near Cuxhaven, after a comparative course of more than 500 British miles. The chief cities on the banks of the Elbe are Dresden, Meissen, Wittenberg, Magdeburg, from which it runs almost a solitary stream to Hamburg.

Not far to the west is the mouth of the Weser, which first receives that name when its two sources, the Werra and the Fulda join. Including the Werra, its chief branch, it flows about 270 British miles. The principal towns on this river are Bevern, Minden, and Bremen.

The sources and mouths of the Rhine have been already described. This noble river forms the grand ancient barrier between France and Germany ; and its course may be computed at about 600 British miles. The Rhinegau is not only celebrated for its wines, but for the romantic appearance of the country, the river running through wild rocks crowned with majestic castles.

In the southern part of Germany the most important river is the Danube, which according to the common opinion rises near the little town of Donauschingen in Swabia, or a little farther to the north. This noble river becomes navigable a little above Ulm, where it receives the Iler. The next tributary stream of consequence is the Lech, which comes from Tyrol, a stream distinguished in the seat of the recent war; as is the Iser, proceeding from Upper Bavaria. The Danube runs about 250 miles through this part of Germany, passing by Ulm, Ratisbon, and Passau. To Orsova it may be considered as an Austrian river for about 550 miles; thence it is Turkish for about 480 to the Euxine.

The Neckar is a tributary stream of the Rhine, rising in the Black Forest, and running about 150 British miles through a country variegated with vineyards. Another and grander tributary stream of the Rhine is the Mayn, which after receiving the Rednitz and other considerable streams,

joins the Rhine to the S. of Mentz. The Mayn is a muddy stream, but abounds with trout, carp, and other fish.

LAKES. Germany presents few lakes, the largest being in the duchy of Mecklenberg, where the lake of Plau extends under various names about 25 British miles, in length, by 6 in breadth.

MOUNTAINS. The most northern mountains in Germany are those of the Hartz, called the Brocken or Blocksberg. The highest about 3021 feet.

The Hessian territories may be regarded as generally mountainous, especially towards the north. Thence S. W. towards the Rhine are several considerable hills, among which may be mentioned those in the west of Wetterau, and the seven hills near the Rhine almost opposite to Andernach; with the ridge of Heyrich which protects the vines of Rhinegau.

But the most celebrated mountains, in that part of Germany which lies to the N. of the Mayn, are the Erzgebirg, or Metallic Mountains, which rise to the N. E. of the Fichtelberg, running between Bohemia and Saxony, but supplying both countries with silver, tin, and other metals.

Among the German mountains to the S. of the Mayn may first be named the Bergstrass, a ridge passing from near Mannheim to the vicinity of Frankfort. The mountains of the Black Forest, in German Schwartzwald, extend from near Neuenburg, in the territories of Wurtemberg south to the four forest towns on the Rhine. The southern part is called the High, and the northern the Lower forest: the length being about 80 and the breadth 20 British miles.

The south east of this portion of Germany is bounded by the high mountains of Bavaria and Salzia or Salzburg; being branches or continuations of the Swiss or Tyrolese Alps, but without general appellations. The Alps of Salzburg exceed in height the Carpathian chain or the Pyrenees, and only yield to the Swiss and Tyrolese Alps, the highest summits being computed at more than 10,000 feet above the sea.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. As Spain is distinguished by its groves of cork trees and ilex, and Scandinavia by its fir woods, so is Germany remarkable for its deep and almost impenetrable forests of oak: not indeed, that this is the invariable characteristic of the country, for

in an empire of such great extent, and of so varied a surface, it must needs happen that the native vegetable productions on the shore of the German ocean should differ considerably from those in the Black Forest or on the frontiers of Tyrol. There is however on the whole more uniformity than might be expected, and though perhaps few plants are absolutely peculiar to Germany, yet the abundance of some species, and the absence of others, forms a striking feature in the natural history of the empire, of which more particular notice hereafter.

The zoology of this western half of Germany corresponds so much with that of the Austrian and Prussian dominions, that little need be added. The German horses are generally more remarkable for weight than spirit. The German wild boar is of superior size; and those of Westphalia are in particular estimation. In the N. of Germany the lynx is sometimes seen; and the wolf is common in the south.

THE CHIEF GERMAN STATES ON THE NORTH OF THE MAYN.

*Saxony.—Brunswick.—Lunenbourg.—Hessia.—Mecklenburg.
Duchy of Brunswick.—City of Hamburg.—Smaller States.
Ecclesiastic Powers.*

IN this division of Germany the elector of Saxony must be regarded as the chief potentate, his territories being computed at 11,680 square miles, the inhabitants at 2,104,000, and the revenue at 1,300,000*l.* sterling. The name is derived from the ancient nation of the Saxons, who in the middle ages held the greatest part of the N. and W. of Germany.

The countries comprised in the electorate of Saxony are, the duchy so called, Voigtland, Lusatia, and part of Thuringia, with part of Misnia and Heneberg; being in length from E. to W. about 220 British miles, and in breadth from N. to S. about 130.

The religion is the Protestant, which was here introduced by Luther; and there are two bishoprics, Merseberg and Naumburg. The government is, as usual among

the German princes, nearly absolute, but conducted with moderation through different councils. Yet there are states general of nobles, clergy, and burgesses, commonly assembled every sixth year to regulate the taxation; and the sovereign can issue no laws without their consent. The army is about 32,000, and the political weight of Saxony in this part of Germany is next to that of Prussia.

The language and literature of Saxony are the most distinguished in all Germany, most of the writers who have refined the language having been born, or having resided in this country. There are many schools, colleges and academies; among the latter, the mineralogic academy of Freyberg, instituted in 1765, is esteemed the leading school of that science. The chief city is Dresden on the Elbe, of celebrated neatness; and about 50,000 inhabitants. The manufactures of Saxony are thread, linen, laces, ribbons, velvets, carpets, paper, colours derived from various minerals, glass, and porcelain of remarkable beauty, and various works in serpentine stone. The country is also rich in native products, both agricultural and mineral, and beautiful pearls are found in the Elster in shells about six inches long. With such advantages Saxony maintains a considerable inland commerce; and Leipsig is esteemed one of the chief trading towns of Germany.

The climate is so favourable that wine is made in Misnia. The face of the country, especially towards the south, is beautifully diversified with hill and dale; and its richness between Meissen and Dresden is esteemed to rival that of the north of Italy. The land is well cultivated; the products, all kinds of grain and vegetables, with hops, flax, hemp, tobacco, saffron, madder, &c. Chief rivers, the Elbe, the Saal or Sala, the Mulda, the Pleisse, the Elster, with the Spree of Lusatia. Few countries can boast of such fossil opulence as Saxony. The mines of Johngeorgenstadt, produce silver, tin, bismuth, manganese, cobalt, wolfram, &c. At Schneckenstein, near Averbach in the Voigtland, appears the topaz rock, unique in its kind. The tin of Saxony is not only a rare product, but is excellent. Jet is also found; and abundance of fine porcelain clay, with fullers' earth, marble, slate, serpentine, agates, and jasper.

Next in consequence is the electorate of Brunswick Lunenburg, or, as often styled from the capital, the elector-

ate of Hanover, containing about 8224 square miles, with 850,000 inhabitants, and the computed revenue 962,500*l.* sterling, while the military force is estimated at 25,970. It is situated in the circle of Lower Saxony. The countries comprised in the electorate of Hanover are chiefly the duchy of Luneburg, Bremen, and Verden, and Saxe Lauenburg adjacent to Holstein; with the countries of Calenburg and Grubenhagen in the south, and those of Diepholtz and Hoya in the west, and that of Danneberg in the east. It may be computed that the compact part of the Hanoverian dominions extends in length, east to west, about 180 miles: and in breadth N. to S. about 100 miles; while the detached duchy of Grubenhagen, with southern Calenburg or the country of Gottingen, is about 80 miles in length by 30 in its greatest breadth.

The religion is the Lutheran. The government is now conducted by a council of regency, and there are provincial states, though rarely summoned. The literature of this country has deserved considerable applause, since the institution of the university of Gottingen by George II. It was founded in 1734, and solemnly opened 1737. The chief city is Hanover, situated on the river Leine, amidst numerous gardens and villas. It is slightly fortified, and contains about 15,500 inhabitants. In the new city, on the left of the Leine, is a library, particularly rich in books of history and politics. The manufactures and commerce of this electorate are pretty considerable, in metals from the Hartz, linen, cotton, some broad cloths, &c. The silver fabrics of Zell are celebrated in Germany. The chief exports are metals, coarse linens, timber, peat, with some cattle and grain.

The agricultural products are wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, haricots, and pot-herbs of all kinds; with abundance of potatoes, good fruits, flax, hemp, tobacco, madder, &c. Wood abounds both for fuel and architecture, and affords considerable quantities of tar and pitch. Bees are particularly attended to. Horses, cattle, and sheep are numerous. The chief river is the Elbe towards the north; and the Weser and Leine on the west; with the Aller and Ilmenau in the centre. The mineralogy is rich, consisting of silver, copper, lead, iron, cobalt, zinc; with marble, slate, coal, turf, and limestone, the last particularly from the hill of Kalkberg near Luneburg. Two curious mineral

substances, boracite, and staurolite, are found, the former in the Kalkberg, the latter at Andreasberg in the Hartz : which region likewise presents several singular features of nature, as the cavern of Blackenburg, the termination of which has never been explored, and the cave of Hamelen.

The bishopric of Osnabruck in Westphalia may be considered as an appanage of Hanover, adjoining to the county of Diepholtz. Its inhabitants about 120,000 : revenue 26,250*l*.

Having thus described, at some length, the two chief and leading principalities on the north of the Mayn, a few others, the next in power, may be briefly mentioned.

In this secondary view of the north of Germany the first place must be assigned to Hesse, a country of no mean extent nor fame. Some districts, as usual, being assigned to princes of the family, the ruling state is denominated Hesse Cassel, so called from the capital. This territory is about 80 British miles in length, and nearly the same in breadth : miles square, 2760, with 700,000 inhabitants, military force 12,000. This country is generally mountainous ; but there are many pleasant vales, sometimes containing vineyards, and fields fertile in corn and pasturage. It abounds in game and fish, and there are many fossils and minerals : the sands of the Eder contain particles of gold ; and there was formerly a mine of that metal, but of small account, near Frankenberg. There are also found silver, copper, lead, coal, fine clays, with veins of marble and alabaster, and some medicinal waters. There are states of three orders, nobles, clergy, and burgesses from Cassel, Marburg, and other towns. The religion is the reformed with two or three superintendants. The universities are those of Marburg and Rinteln, and that of Gissen belonging to Hesse Darmstadt, ruled by another branch of the family. There is some trade from the natural products, and a few manufactures of linen, cloth, hats, stockings, &c. The chief city is Cassel, which contains about 22,000 inhabitants, and is pleasing, though often injured by war. Hanau is also a considerable place ; and the country so called is supposed to contain 100,000 souls.

The duchy of Mecklenburg is supposed to contain 4,800 square miles, with 375,000 inhabitants, or by Hoeck's account 300,000. It is divided into two parts, known by the additions of Schwerin and Güstrow, full of lakes, heaths and

marshes ; and the soil being sandy, produces little but rye and oats. The states, consisting of nobility and burgesses, are assembled yearly to regulate the taxation. The religion is the Lutheran, with six superintendants ; and an university at Rostock. The manufactures are wool and tobacco : the exports, partly by Lubec, partly by Hamburg, are grain, flax, hemp, hops, wax, honey, cattle, butter, cheese, fruits, feathers, dried geese, tallow, linseed, wool, and timber.

The duke of Brunswick possesses a territory of 1472 square miles, with 170,000 inhabitants ; the chief city being Brunswick, which contains about 22,000 : but his territory is called the principality of Wolfenbittel, from a town of far less importance. The face of the country resembles the electorate of Hanover. Here is a rich convent of nuns at Gandersheim of the Lutheran persuasion, the abbess being generally a princess of the family. There are several small manufactures ; and the strong beer of Brunswick, called mum, is exported from Hamburg.

Nor must the city of Hamburg be omitted, being after Vienna and Berlin, the third city in Germany, and supposed to contain 100,000 inhabitants, or by Hoeck's account 95,000 : while no other, except Dresden and Frankfort on the Mayn, contain more than 30,000. The Elbe is here, including the islands, near a mile broad. The houses are rather commodious than elegant and there are few fine streets, the population being overcrowded on account of the fortifications built in the old Dutch taste, with spacious ramparts planted with trees. It is ruled by a senate of 37 persons, the form being aristocratic. The religion is Lutheran. There are considerable breweries and works for refining sugar, with some manufactures of cloth. Formerly the trade chiefly consisted of linens, woollens, wine, sugar, coffee, spiceries, metals, tobacco, timber, leather, corn, dried fish, furs, &c. but at present it is the great mart of the commerce of the British isles with the continent. The bank was founded in 1619 ; and the numerous libraries do honour to the taste of the inhabitants. Its chief dependencies are the river of Alster, the bailliage of Ham, some isles and lowlands on the Elbe ; and, besides some districts acquired from Holstein, the bailliage of Ritzebittel, on the north of the duchy of Bremen, including the port of Cuxhaven, and the isle called Neuenwerk, situated opposite to that port.

In this northern half of Germany there are six or seven other smaller principalities, containing together about half a million of people ; besides the three ecclesiastical electorates of Mentz, Treves and Cologne, which contain about 300,000 inhabitants, each, and six or seven bishoprics of from 70,000 to 200,000 each : but some of these have been partitioned between France and Prussia.

THE GERMAN STATES ON THE SOUTH OF THE MAYN.

Electorate of Bavaria conjoined with the Palatinate.—Duchy of Wurtemberg.—Anspach.—Salzia.—Smaller States.—Ecclesiastic Power.

IN the southern division, Austria excepted, the elector of Bavaria and the Palatinate is the chief of all the secondary powers, his dominions being computed at 16,176 miles square, with 1,934,000 inhabitants. The French having seized more than half of the Palatinate on the left bank of the Rhine, the remaining part, on the right bank of the river, is about twenty-four British miles in length, by the same at its utmost breadth ; but contains the best part of the principality, pervaded by the river Neckar, producing excellent wines, and enriched by the cities of Mannheim and Heidelberg. In 1693 the Palatinate was rendered almost a desert by the Vandalic ravages of the French. In the last war, after mangling the carcase, they claimed it as their own.

The duchy of Bavaria is divided into Upper and Lower, and what is called the Higher Palatinate (or that of Bavaria). The length from N. to S. is somewhat interrupted, but may be about 150 British miles, and the breadth about 120. Upper Bavaria is, in a great degree, mountainous, and covered with forests, interspersed with large and small lakes. Lower Bavaria is more plain and fertile. The chief mineral riches of Bavaria consist in the salt springs at Traunstein, which occupy many people in productive industry. The religion is the Roman Catholic, which, as usual, damps the spirit of industry ; and the manufactures are of small account, the chief exports being corn and cattle. The revenue is computed at 1,166,600*l.* and the military

force at 12,000. The chief city is Munich, esteemed the most elegant in Germany, with 38,000 inhabitants; in Lower Bavaria are Landshut and Strauben.

The next potentate in the south is the duke of Wurtemberg, whose dominions are computed at 3,200 square miles, with 600,000 inhabitants. His revenue is computed at 245,000*l*. his military force at 6,000. This duchy forms the most considerable and fertile part of the circle of Swabia; and is, indeed, after Saxony, one of the best in the empire. The chief grain is spelt, and some barley and wheat, with flax, &c. and the fertility suffices even for export. The wines of the Necker are not so abundant as to supersede the use of cyder. The chief river is the Necker, which, with the Nagold, and its other tributary streams, enlivens and fertilizes the duchy. The states consist of fourteen superior clergy, and the deputies of sixty-eight towns and bailliages. The religion is the Lutheran, with some Calvinists, and some colonies of the Vaudois. There are manufactures of pottery, glass, woollen, linen, and silk; which, with the natural products of the country, supply a considerable export: the imports are by Frankfort on the Mayn. The chief city is Stutgard, agreeably situated on a rivulet which flows into the Necker, and the ducal residence since the year 1321.

Among the secondary powers, in this southern division of Germany, must first be named Anspach, or Onolsbach, which, with Bareuth, maintains a population of 320,000 on 2,300 square miles. These regions are mountainous and sandy; but near the Mayn yield good wines. The chief mines are of iron, the others being neglected.

The country of Salz, also called Salzia, and the archbishopric of Salzburg, is a compact and interesting region, about 100 English miles in length, and 60 at its greatest breadth; computed at 2,880 square miles, and a population of 250,000; by Hoeck's account, only 200,000. The archbishop is primate of all Germany, the see being founded by St. Rupert, an Englishman, in 716. Salzburg has an university, with about 20,000 inhabitants. The Roman Catholic system has banished many industrious inhabitants, who have chiefly taken refuge in the Prussian dominions. The salt works at Hallen, about twelve miles S of Salzburg, are very lucrative.

This grand southern division of Germany also contains the territories of the Margrave of Baden, 832 square miles, with 200,000 inhabitants ; the lands of Hesse Darmstadt, belonging to another reigning branch of the house of Hesse, the imperial city of Nuremberg which has considerably declined, but still contains about 30,000 souls, while Ulm has not above half the number. To enumerate other small secular principalities would only obstruct the intention of this description, which is to impress on the memory the more important.

But as the intention of secularizing the numerous ecclesiastical territories in Germany seems to be the politics of the day, it may be proper to add here, the names at least of the chief sees to the south of the Mayn. 1. The archbishopric of Salzburg, which has been already described. 2. The large bishopric of Wurtzburg, being chiefly on the north of the Mayn, has been mentioned before. 3. Bamberg. 4. The bishopric of Speyr, or, as the French call it, Spire, one half of which is now subject to France. 5. The bishopric of Aichstett, in the southern extremity of Franconia. 6. The large and opulent bishopric of Augsburg. 7. Of Constance, whose territories also extend into Swisserland. 8. A great part of the bishopric of Strasburg. 9. The large abbatial territories of Kempten, Buchan, and Lindau ; with the priory of Ellwangen in the north. 10. The bishopric of Passau. 11. That of Freysingen, with the county of Werdenfels. And 12. The bishopric of Ratisbon, which is of small extent. The lion and other beasts agreed to hunt in partnership ; it would be wise in some of the small partitioners of the ecclesiastical territory to recollect the result of the fable.

ITALIAN STATES.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF ITALY.

*Divisions.—Boundaries.—Extent.—Original Population.—
Present Population.—Face of the Country.—Rivers.—
Lakes.—Mountains.—Botany.—Zoology.*

THE classical and interesting country of Italy has been so repeatedly described, that it has become familiar even to the common reader. This description shall therefore be restricted to very narrow limits ; and will also of necessity be somewhat abridged by the present unsettled state of the country. We shall delineate only those lasting features of nature which no political change can influence.

DIVISIONS. Italy may be regarded as having been, in all ages of history, divided into three parts, the southern, the central, and the northern. The southern part having received many Greek colonies was honoured with the ancient appellation of Magna Græcia : the centre was the seat of Roman and Etrurian power ; while the northern was the Cisalpine Gaul.

BOUNDARIES, &c. The boundaries of this renowned country are deeply impressed by the hand of nature, in the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, and the grand barrier of the Alps, which divide it from France, Swisserland, and Germany. The length of Italy from mount Rosa, the highest summit of the Italian Alps, to the Cape de Leuca, is about 670 British miles ; while the medial breadth between the Adriatic and Mediterranean is about 100 ; but from the Adige, the recent limit of Austrian power, to the eastern frontiers of the new French departments of Liman

and Mont Blanc (formerly Savoy), the breadth is about 200 miles. The original population of the south consisted of Pelasgi from the Peloponnesus; the northern part of Illyrians, who were succeeded by German Gauls; and the Etruscans of the centre are said to have been of Lydian extract. The Romans seem to derive their origin from the early Greek colonies; and their language was regarded as an Æolic dialect of the Greek. It is almost superfluous to add, that the religion is the Roman Catholic. The present population of Italy, with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, cannot be estimated at more than 13,000,000. The kingdom of Naples and Sicily contains about 6,000,000; the central part about 3,000,000; and the northern about four. The manners, customs, and dialects are various and discordant, though the general language be the Italian, esteemed the purest in Tuscany, while the enunciation is most perfect at Rome.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Italy presents a variety of scenery, decorated with noble architecture, as villas, venerable remains of ancient art, amidst a climate generally serene, though liable to violent rains. In the north the sublime scenery of the Alps is contrasted with fertile plains. In the centre there are many marshes and standing waters, which occasion a pernicious distemperature of the air. A great part of the kingdom of Naples is mountainous; but the country generally beautiful; yet in addition to the fiery eruptions of Vesuvius and Etna, it is exposed to the terrible effect of frequent earthquakes, and the enervating sirocco.

RIVERS. Italy is intersected with rivers in almost every direction, of which the Po is by far the most large and extensive. This noble river, called by the ancients Padus and Eridanus, rises on the very confines of France and Italy. Thus descending from the centre of the western Alps, it passes to the N. E. of Saluzzo, to Turin; receiving even in this short space many rivers, as the Varitta, Maira, and Grana from the S. and from the N. the Felice, Sagon, and others. After leaving the walls of Turin, the Po receives innumerable rivers and rivulets from the Alps in the N. and the Apennines in the S. Among the former may be named the Doria, the Tesino, the Adda, the Oglio, the Mincio. From the south the Po first receives the copious Alpine river Tanaro, itself swel-

led by the Belba, Bormida, and other streams. The course of the Po may be comparatively estimated at about 300 British miles. The numerous tributary rivers, from the Alps and Apennines, bring down so much sand and gravel, that the bed of the Po has in modern times been considerably raised, so that in many places banks of thirty feet in height are necessary to preserve the country from inundation. Hence hydraulics have been much studied in the north of Italy; and the numerous canals of irrigation delight and instruct the traveller.

The other rivers of the north of Italy, as the Adige, the Brenta, the Piavi, and the Tagliamento, must now rather be regarded as Austrian streams.

In the centre first appears the Arno, which rises in the Apennines, and flows by Florence and Pisa into the gulph of Genoa. The Tiber, an immortal stream, is by far the most considerable in the middle, or south of Italy, rising near the source of the Arno, S. E. of St. Marino, and passing by Perugia, and Rome, to the Mediterranean, which it joins after a course of about 150 British miles.

LAKES. Italy contains many beautiful lakes, particularly in the northern division. The Lago Maggiore, is about twenty-seven British miles in length, by three of medial breadth. This lake formerly adjoined to the Milanese territory, and contains the beautiful Boromean isles, celebrated by many travellers. Still farther to the east is the lake of Como, which is about thirty-two British miles in length, but the medial breadth not above two and a half. Yet farther to the east is the noble Lago di Garda, an expanse of about thirty British miles in length by eight in breadth. There are few other lakes in Italy, but they are of smaller dimensions.

MOUNTAINS. The most important mountains of Italy are the Alps, already in a great measure described, under the article of *Swisserland*. The maritime Alps rise from the sea to the west of *Oneglia*, and are succeeded by other denominations, extending due north to *mont Blanc*, the ancient boundary of *Savoy*. The most remarkable passage through the maritime Alps is the *Col de Tende*, and *mount Cenis* is a noted passage to *Turin*. In general the western Alps rise, in successive elevation, from the sea to *Mont Blanc*. From *Mont Blanc* the grand chain of the Italian Alps bends N. E. presenting the high summits

of the great St. Bernard, mount Maudit, and mount Rosa, the last nearly approaching Mont Blanc itself in height.

From mount Rosa this grand chain continues its progress N. E. by Simplon, &c. through the country of the Grisons to the glaciers of Tyrol, terminating in the Salzian Alps.

The next grand chain of Italian mountains is that of the Apennines, which are at first a branch of the Alps, separating the plains of Piedmont from the sea. They begin near Ormea, in that high ridge which now forms the boundary of the French department of the maritime Alps, and stretch without any interruption along both sides of the gulph of Genoa, at no great distance from the sea. In the south of the territory of Modena, they proceed almost due east to the centre of Italy; thence S. E. to its extremities, generally approaching nearer to the Adriatic than to the Mediterranean.

Having thus briefly considered the chief ridges of Italian mountains, those sublime features of the country the volcanoes must not be omitted. Vesuvius is a conic detached mountain, about 3,600 feet high. The terrors of an eruption, the subterranean thunders, the thickening smoke, the ruddy flames, the stony showers ejected to a prodigious height, amidst the coruscations of native lightning, the throes of the mountain, the eruption of the lava, descending in a horrid and copious stream of destruction, have exercised the power of many writers, but far exceed the utmost energy of description.

Yet Vesuvius, placed by the side of Etna, would seem a small ejected hill, the whole circuit of its base not exceeding 30 miles, while Etna covers a space of 180, and its height above the sea is computed at about 11,000 feet. This enormous mass is surrounded by smaller mountains, some of which equal Vesuvius in size; and while the lava of the latter may devolve its stream for seven miles, Etna will emit a liquid fire thirty miles in length. The crater of Vesuvius never exceeds half a mile in circumference, while that of Etna is commonly three, and sometimes six miles. Such is the height of Etna that the eruptions rarely attain the summit, but more usually break out at the sides. Near the crater begins the region of perpetual snow and ice; which is followed by the woody region; consisting of oaks, beeches, firs, and pines, while the upper is almost destitute of vegetation.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Among the trees, besides the common ones of Britain, we find the olive, the date plum, the storax tree, the bead tree, the almond, the pomegranate, the azarole plum, the pyracantha, the carob tree, the ilex, the pistachia, the manna-tree, the cypress, the date palm, the lemon, the orange, the fig, and the vine.

In the southern parts, cotton, rice, and the sugar cane indicate the fertility of the soil, and the warmth of the climate; and the fields, and pastures, as far as they have been examined, bear a striking resemblance in their native products to those which have been already mentioned, as enlivening the southern provinces of Spain.

The Italian horses are of little reputation. The cows of the Lodezan, where the noted cheese is now made, which was formerly produced near Parma, are described by Mr. Young as generally of a blood-red colour, long, lank, and ill made. The buffalo is in Europe almost peculiar to Italy; an animal, though tame, of ferocious aspect, and as different from the bull, as the ass is from the horse. In manners he somewhat resembles the hog, being fond of wallowing in mud, his flesh is coarse, and his hide, though light, is so firm as to have supplied the buff coat, or armour of the seventeenth century. Originally as is supposed from Africa, he is little adapted to any cold climate. The marmot, and the ibex are also reckoned among the animals of the Apennines; and the crested porcupine is esteemed peculiar to the south of Italy.

THE SOUTHERN PART OF ITALY.

Naples and Sicily, with the adjacent Isles.

NAPLES AND SICILY. THIS division comprises the kingdom of Naples and Sicily; being divided from the central part chiefly by an arbitrary line; nor has nature indeed marked any precise distinction, except some rivers were assumed as boundaries, towards the Mediterranean and Adriatic. Sicily is about 170 British miles in length, by 70 of medial breadth: while this part of Italy exceeds 300

miles in length by 100 in breadth. Square miles 29,824, with six millions of inhabitants.

Though the religion be the Roman Catholic, the Inquisition has been carefully excluded. Few men of distinguished genius have recently appeared in this portion of Italy, which is overrun with priests and lawyers: but among the latter Giannone has distinguished himself by his spirited history of his country. There are no less than 20 archbishoprics, and 125 episcopal sees; but no university of any reputation. The ecclesiastics are computed at 200,000; and it is supposed that about one-half of the lands is in their possession. The government is nearly despotic. The laws are contained in the Codex Carolinus published in 1754. The political importance is inconsiderable.

The chief city is Naples, esteemed, after Constantinople, the most beautiful capital in the world: the inhabitants are computed at 380,000. Palermo in Sicily is supposed to contain 130,000. Messina was nearly destroyed by an earthquake, 1783; but Bari is said to contain 30,000 souls, and Catanea 26,000. Besides excellent wines, oranges, olives, rice and flax, this kingdom abounds in cattle; and some parts are celebrated for the produce of manna and saffron. The manufactures, particularly those of silk and woollen, date from the reign of Ferdinand I. of Arragon; and these, with the native products, constitute the chief articles of trade. Iron manufactures have been recently instituted near Naples, but the mines and the agriculture are alike neglected; and Sicily, anciently so fertile in grain, is now of little account. The revenue is computed at 1,400,000*l.* sterling; and the army at 40,000. There are about four ships of the line, and four frigates. The mountains have been already mentioned in the general description of Italy, and the rivers are inconsiderable. The natural curiosities of these regions are numerous and interesting, independent of the grand volcanic appearances. About six miles from Girgenti, and very remote from Etna, there is a singular volcano, which in 1777 darted forth a high column of potter's earth of which there are continual ebullitions from about sixty small apertures. Spallanzani has explained the noted wonders of Scylla and Charybdis; the former being a lofty rock on the Calabrian shore, with some caverns at the bottom, which by the agitation of the waves emit sounds resembling the barking of dogs. The only danger

is when the current and winds are in opposition, so that vessels are impelled towards the rock. Charybdis is not a whirlpool, or involving vortex, but a spot where the waves are greatly agitated by pointed rocks, and the depth does not exceed 500 feet. The chief islands in the neighbourhood of Italy are the isles of Lipari, the small isles off the gulph of the ancient Caprea, the isle of Ischia, Italian Pentadaria, the small isle of San Stephano, and the three Ponzian isles. The isles of Malta and Gozo are of far more consequence. They are rocky and barren, not producing grain sufficient for half the consumption of a thin population; but may in the hands of the English prove a valuable acquisition. Malta is about 50 British miles in circumference, and is supposed to contain 60,000 inhabitants. The isle of Gozo is about half the extent, and is rather fertile, the population being computed at 3000.

These two islands are possessed by the British, and are of so much importance to the nation, that the minister who surrenders them, while France has a port on the Mediterranean, will deserve to loose his head.

THE CENTRAL PART OF ITALY.

Dominions of the Church.—Tuscany.—Lucca.—St. Marino. Piombino, and the Isle of Elba.

THIS portion comprehends the dominions of the Church, and the grand duchy, now kingdom of Tuscany; with a few diminutive states, as the republics of Lucca and St. Marino, the principality of Piombino, and the small portion of territory around Orbitello belonging to the kingdom of Naples.

The territory belonging to the Pope reaches from near Pesaro to beyond Terracina. By the treaty of Campo Formio in 1797, confirmed by that of Luneville in 1801, the provinces of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna were ceded to the Cisalpine republic, a state lately erected by, and dependent on France. The pontiff is elected by the cardinals, a kind of chapter consisting nominally of priests and deacons, but in effect of opulent ecclesiastics, who are elevated to this dignity by their services to the church, by family connections, or by princely recommendation.

Rome is supposed to contain 162,800 inhabitants: and Ancona 20,000. The revenue arising from the papal territory was computed at about 350,000*l.* sterling; but by exactions in foreign countries was raised to about 800,000*l.* Yet there was a large debt, bearing eight per cent. interest, a sure proof of the want of industry and prosperity.

The grand duchy, now kingdom of Tuscany, has long been celebrated for the arts; and Florence is regarded as the Athens of modern Italy. This principality is about 120 British miles in length by 90 in breadth; but on 7,040 square miles contains a population of about 1,250,000. This charming country has been granted to a prince of Spain, who wields his tributary sceptre of Etruria under the protection of the French republic. The revenue is computed at about half a million sterling, but the forces do not exceed 6 or 8,000. Tuscany is one of the most beautiful and fertile regions of Italy, with a temperate and healthy climate. It abounds in corn and cattle, and produces excellent wines and fruit. Florence contains about 80,000 inhabitants, and Livorno (corrupted by our mariners to Leghorn) 45,000. The manufactures of silk and velvet were formerly celebrated, and still maintain reputation.

The small republic of *Lucca* is supposed to contain 120,000 people, on 288 square miles; of which Lucca holds about 40,000. It assumed independence in 1370, and in the recent revolutions of Italy this state adopted a constitution similar to the French. The Lucanese are the most industrious people of Italy, and no spot of ground is neglected, the hills being covered with vines, olives, chesnut, and mulberry trees, while the meadows near the coast nourish numerous cattle. Oil and silk are the chief exports of Lucca. The diminutive republic of *S^t. Marino* has been celebrated by many able writers. The inhabitants of the village and mountain are computed at 5000. It is surrounded by the dominions of the Pope, and claims his protection.

The principality of Piombino, consisting of a small portion of the Italian shore, and the opposite isle of Elba, has recently been yielded to the French republic. Piombino is a small neglected town, the princes having generally resided at Rome. The isle of Elba is about nine miles in length, and three in breadth; and has been remarkable from early antiquity for its metallic productions, particu-

larly beautiful ores of iron, often crystallized, and mingled with native Prussian blue.

Ragusa, another small commercial republic, though situated on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, is often considered as an Italian state. It has a population of about 56,000, on 352 square miles. The religion is the Catholic, and the speech the Slavonic, but most of the inhabitants speak Italian. It is an archbishopric, with six suffragans, and its commerce is considerable, as it supplies the Turks with several kinds of merchandize and ammunition.

THE NORTHERN PART OF ITALY.

Piedmont.---Milan.---Mantua.---Parma and Placentia.---Modena.---Genoa.

THIS largest division formerly comprised the extensive territories subject to Venice, and the king of Sardinia, with Milan and Mantua, appanages of the house of Austria, the principalities of Parma and Modena, and the long mountainous strip belonging to the Genoese. But the Venetian possessions to the river Adige, have now become subject to Austria; France has seized on the greatest part of Piedmont and Savoy, with the county of Nice, and the small principality of Monaco. Parma and Placentia were consigned to a Spanish prince, but are now under the direction of French commissioners. The state of Genoa with some of the Imperial fiefs, constitute the new Ligurian republic, under the influence of France; and the remainder together with the provinces ceded by the Pope, constitute the Cisalpine republic, also at the disposal of France.

The most extensive province of this division is Piedmont, about 150 English miles in length by 100 of medial breadth. While the revenue of Sardinia was estimated at 1,085,000*l.* Piedmont contributed 953,750*l.* Savoy 87,500*l.* and Sardinia only 43,750*l.* This delightful province enjoys a mild and pure air, and distinguished fertility of soil, the plains producing wheat, maize, rice, with some olives and wine, and the pasturages abound with cattle. Around Turin and through a great part of the province, artificial irrigation, or the watering of meadows, is practised with great assiduity and success. The copper mines in the duchy of Aosta are

numerous ; and in some places this metal is accompanied with antimony, arsenic, and zinc.

The chief city of Piedmont is Turin, supposed to contain more than 80,000 inhabitants, with an university founded in 1405 by Amadeo duke of Savoy, this city having been subject to the family since A. D. 1097. Vercelli is said to contain 20,000 ; and Alessandria 12,000. The king of Sardinia used to maintain an army of about 40,000. The exports consist of silk which was chiefly manufactured at Lyons, some hemp, and large flocks of cattle.

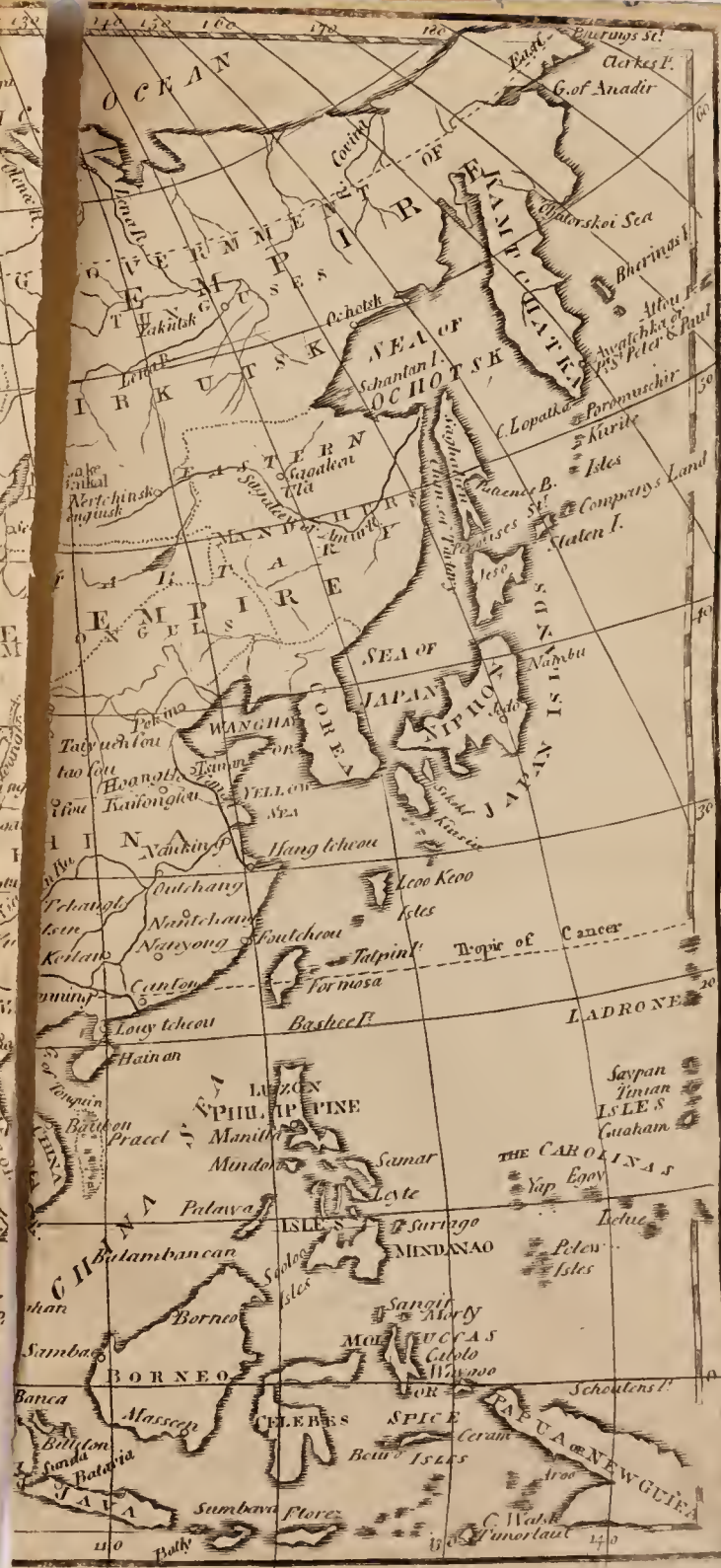
The island of Sardinia used to be considered as an appendage of Piedmont. It has been shamefully neglected by the government ; but being now the sole remnant of the possessions formerly annexed to the Sardinian crown, will no doubt be benefited by the presence of its sovereign.

The Cisalpine republic is little else than a province of France. It comprises the provinces of Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara as far as the Po, the duchy of Modena and Massa Carrara, the Imperial fiefs of Villa-franca, Ulla, and Fosdi Nuovo ; the duchies of Milan and Mantua, the Lumelline, Upper and Lower Navarese, and Val de Sesia ; the Valteline and all the former Venetian territory W. of the Adige, including the Bergamese, Brescian, and part of the Veronese. We will give a sketch of the principal divisions.

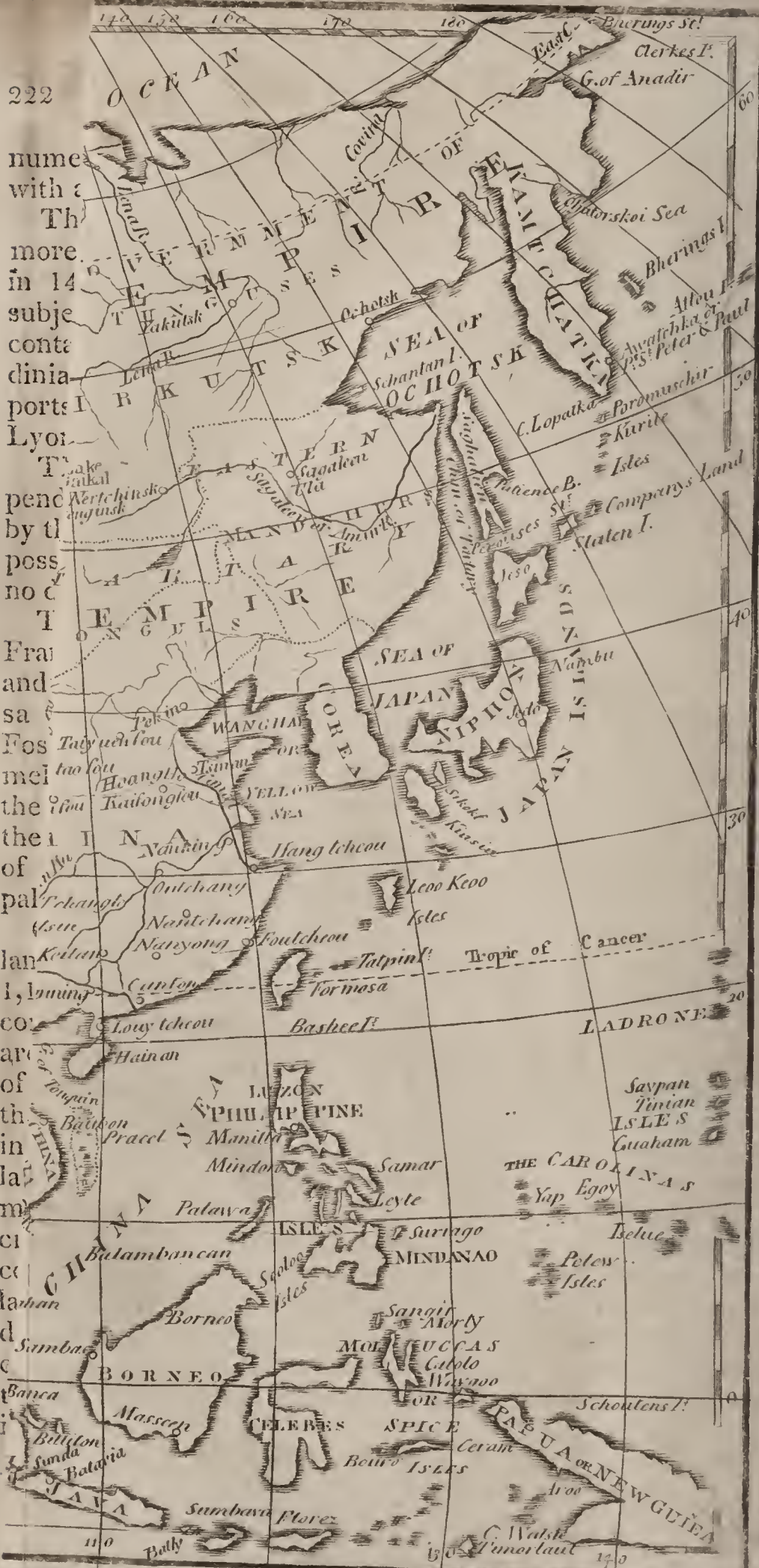
Of these the most important is the fertile duchy of Milan, said to contain, on 2,432 square miles, a population of 1,116,850. Of the chief city of Milan the inhabitants are computed at about 120,000. The revenues of this duchy are computed at about 300,000*l*. At Pavia is an university of great repute, the professors having much distinguished themselves in natural history. It is regarded as the first in Italy. There are manufactures of wool and silk, but the latter is inferior to that of Piedmont : there are also numerous workmen in gold, silver, embroidery, steel, and in crystal, agate, aventurine, and other stones, so that the country swarms with artizans. The irrigation of the Milanese Mr. Young represents as a stupendous effort of industry, and the canals for this purpose are mentioned as early as the eleventh century ; some of them being more than 30 miles long, and near 50 feet wide. The price of land is near 100*l*. the acre, and yields about three per cent. in-

ASIA.

The map illustrates the vast continent of Asia, divided into numerous territories and provinces. Notable features include the Arctic Circle in the north, the Tropic of Cancer and the Equinoctial Line in the south, and the Red Sea to the southwest. Major cities and trade centers are marked, such as Constantinople, Bagdad, Calcutta, and Canton. The map also depicts the surrounding bodies of water, including the Black Sea, the Caspian Sea, and the Indian Ocean.



Sumat
Ba
4



terest. The cattle, dairies, and cheese are excellent; but the sheep few and bad.

The small duchy of Mantua had been subject to Austria since the year 1707, and was ruled by the governor-general of the Milanese. The capital stands on a lake, formed by the Mincio, and was formerly supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants, now reduced to about 12,000; the position and fortifications render it a place of great strength.

The duchy of Modena is a remnant of the power of the celebrated family of Este, who also possessed the adjacent country of Ferrara. It contains about 320,000 souls, and the city of Modena 30,000; the revenue was 140,000*l*. The soil resembles that of the duchy of Parma. The breed of sheep is neglected. It is remarkable that in digging wells near Modena, at a certain depth, a particular stratum is found, which being passed, the water gushes up as from a subterranean lake or river.

The territories of Parma and Placentia have been conjoined for many ages; and have lately been occupied by the French. The population is computed at 300,000; revenue 175,000*l*. Parma is a considerable city with some manufactures, and an academy of painting. Both Parma and Placentia have universities. The soil is a rich sandy or gravelly loam, with fine pastures; and the Parmesan cheese now made at Lodi in the Milanese, has been celebrated for many centuries.

The Imperial fiefs, and smaller states in this part of Italy, would little merit description, especially in the present uncertainty with regard to their final destination. This account shall therefore close with the republic of Genoa, consisting of a long mountainous tract, formerly noted for the acuteness and treachery of the Ligurians its inhabitants. The papal power is here little venerated, the people being immersed in business, and receiving monied heretics with open arms. The population of the territory is computed at 400,000; of the city at 80,000. The troops, including the country militia, may amount to 30,000; but the once powerful fleets have sunk to a few galleys. The air is pure and salubrious, and there are excellent fruits and vegetables; but the grain is not sufficient for the consumption. The manufactures are chiefly of silk and velvet.

ASIA.

EXTENT. THIS great division of the earth extends in length from the Hellespont to what is called the East Cape; that is from about the 26° of longitude, east from London, into the other hemisphere to near 190° degrees of east longitude, or 170° west from London; being no less than 164° , or (taking the degree at a medial latitude) more than 6500 geographical miles. From the southern cape of Malacca to the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi, which braves the ice of the Arctic ocean, the breadth extends from about 2° of northern latitude to about 77° , or nearly 4500 geographical miles. If, for the sake of a rude and merely comparative calculation, one-sixth part be added for the difference between the statute and geographical mile, the length of Asia in British miles would be about 7583, and the breadth 5250.

It is now well known that Asia is limited, on the east, by a strait which divides it from America, of about 40 miles, and which, in honour of the discoverer, is called Beering's Strait. The northern and southern boundaries are the Arctic and Indian oceans, in which last many large islands, particularly that of New Holland, now more classically styled by some *Australasia*, affords a vast additional extent to this quarter of the globe. The western limits of Asia are marked by the eastern limits of Europe.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The population of Asia is by all authors allowed to be wholly primitive and original; if we except that of the Techuks or Tchuktchi, who, by the Russian travellers and Mr. Tooke, are supposed to have passed from the opposite coast of America. With

a few trifling exceptions Asia presents a prodigious original population, as may be judged from the following table, which will be found more clear than any prolix discussion on the subject.

LINNÆAN TABLE OF THE NATIONS AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA.

	<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
I.	Assyrians.	{ Assyrians. Arabians. Egyptians.	Chaldee. Hebrew, &c.
II	Scythians.	{ Persians. Scythians, intra et extra Imaum, &c.	Armenians. The Persi and Zend are cognate with the Gothic, Greek, & Latin, according to Sir W. Jones.
III.	Sarmats.	{ Medes. Parthians.	Georgians. Circassians.
IV.	{ Seres. Indi.	Hindoos.	Northern & South- ern, &c.
V.	Sinæ.	{ Chinese. Japanese.	These have a Tata- ric form or face.

The great share of population which Europe has received from Asia will appear from the following little table.

PRIMÆVAL INHABITANTS.

	<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
I.	Celts.	{ Irish. Welch. Armorican.	Erse, Manks. Cornish.
II.	Fins (chief god Yummala.)	{ Finlanders. Esthonians. Laplanders. Hungarians.	Permians or Biarmians. Livonians. Votiacs & Chermisses. Voguls & Ostiacs.

COLONIES FROM ASIA.

<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
III. Scythians or Goths (<i>Odin.</i>)	{ Icelanders, Norwegians.	
	{ Swedes, Danes.	
	{ Germans.	Swiss, Frisic.
IV. Sarmats or Slavons (<i>Perun.</i>)	{ English.	Flemish, Dutch.
	{ Poles.	Heruli.
	{ Russians.	Vendi.
	{ Kossacs.	Lettes.

The inhabitants of France, Italy, and Spain are also of Asiatic origin; and speak corrupted Roman, which, like the Greek, is a polished dialect of the Gothic, according to Sir William Jones and other able antiquaries. The Heruli, Wends, and Lettes, used mixed and imperfect dialects of the Slavonic. Critical Review, vol. xxvii. p. 129.

SEAS. Though Asia cannot vie with Europe in the advantages of inland seas, yet, in addition to a share of the Mediterranean, it possesses the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and gulph of Persia; the bays of Bengal and Nankin; and other gulphs, which diversify the coasts much more than those of Africa or America, and have doubtless contributed greatly to the early civilization of this celebrated division of the earth.

The Red Sea, or the Arabian gulph of antiquity, constitutes the grand natural division between Asia and Africa; but its advantages have chiefly been felt by the latter, which is entirely destitute of other inland seas; Egypt and Abyssinia, two of the most civilized countries in that division, having derived great benefits from this celebrated gulph, which from the straits of Babelmandel to Suez extends about 21° , or 1470 British miles; terminating not in two equal branches, as delineated in old maps, but in an extensive western branch, while the eastern ascends little beyond the parallel of Mount Sinai.

The Persian gulph is another noted inland sea, about half the length of the former, being the grand receptacle of those celebrated rivers the Euphrates and the Tigris.

The other gulphs do not afford such strong features of what are properly termed inland seas; if the Euxine be excepted, which has already been briefly described in the general survey of Europe. But the vast extent of Asia

contains seas totally detached, and of a different description from any that occur in Europe, or other quarters of the globe. Such is the Caspian sea, extending about 10° , or 700 miles in length, and from 100 to 200 in breadth. Besides herrings, salmon, and other fish, with porpoises and seals, this sea produces sterlet, and great numbers of excellent sturgeon, which last in particular ascend the Volga, and supply kaviar and other articles of exportation. The best haven in the Caspian is that of Baku: that of Derbent is rocky; and that of Ensili, or Sinsili, not commodious, though one of the chief ports of trade.

About 100 miles to the east of the Caspian is the sea or lake of Aral, which is about 200 miles in length, and 70 miles in breadth. This sea being surrounded with sandy deserts, has been little explored; but it is salt like the Caspian, and there are many small saline lakes in the vicinity.

Another remarkable detached sea is that of Baikal in Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, extending from about the fifty-first to the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude, being about 350 British miles in length but its greatest breadth not above 35. The water is fresh and transparent, yet of a green or sea tinge, commonly frozen in the latter end of December, and clear of ice in May. The Baikal is, at particular periods, subject to violent and unaccountable storms, whence, as terror is the parent of superstition, probably springs the Russian name of Svetoie Morè, or the Holy Sea.

The religions, governments, rivers, mountains, &c. of this quarter of the globe will be illustrated in the accounts of the several countries into which it is divided.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

EXTENT. THIS region extends from the shores of the Egean sea, or Archipelago, to the confines of Persia ; a space of about 1050 British miles. The boundaries towards Persia are rather ideal than natural, though somewhat marked by the mountains of Ararat and Elwend. In the north the Turkish territories are now divided from the Russian by the river Cuban, and the chain of Caucasus ; in the south they extend to the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates, which last river, for a considerable space, divides the Turkish possessions from those of the Arabs. From the river Cuban to the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates, may be about 1100 British miles.

DIVISIONS. This extensive territory, which in itself would constitute an empire, could it resume its pristine population, is divided into nine or ten provinces, viz. Natolia, Caraminia, Eyraco Arabic, or Chaldea, Diarbec, or Mesopotamia, Turcomania or Armenia, Curdistan or Assyria. Georgia, including Mingrelia, Imaretta, and part of Circassia, Amasia, Aladulia, Syria with Palestine.

These provinces are subdivided into governments arbitrarily administered by pashas.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of these regions consisted chiefly of Scythic nations, mingled with a few Assyrians, from the south. At present the ruling language is the Turkish, next to which may be placed the modern Greek ; but the Arabic, Syrian, Persian, and Armenian, with various dialects used by the tribes on the Black sea, indicate the diversity of population.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The chief epochs of Turkish history have already been mentioned, in describing their European possessions.

ANTIQUITIES. The antiquities of Asiatic Turkey, once the chosen seat of the arts, are numerous and important, but have been so repeatedly described as to have become trivial themes, even to the general reader. The most splendid ruins are those of Palmyra, or Tadmor, in the desert, about 150 miles to the S. E. of Aleppo, at the northern extremity of the sandy wastes of Arabia.

Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis, is about 50 miles to the N. W. of Damascus, the most remarkable ruin being that of a temple, supposed to have been dedicated to the sun.

Recent investigation has disclosed another remarkable scene of antiquity, in the site and celebrated plain of Troy. The tombs of remote antiquity having been constructed like the large barrows of our ancestors, in the lasting form of small hills, they withstood the assaults of time, or avarice; and late travellers indicate, with some plausibility, that of Hector, behind the site of Troy; those of Achilles, and Patroclus on the shore; and a few others of the Homeric heroes.

POPULATION. The Turkish empire in Asia is estimated at 470,400 square miles; and the population at ten millions; which, allowing eight for the European part, will render the total 18,000,000.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. In general the most striking feature of manners and customs, in the Turkish empire, is that half the people may be considered as somewhat civilized, while the other half are pastoral wanderers, ranging over extensive wastes. This laxity of government renders travelling very unsafe, and has proved a great impediment to any exact geographical knowledge of these regions. Under a wise and energetic government industry and the arts might again visit this classical territory.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The capital of the Turkish empire has been already described. Next in dignity and importance is the city of Haleb, or Aleppo, supposed to contain about 250,000 inhabitants. This city is constructed with some elegance, and the tall cypress trees, contrasted with the white minarets of numerous mosques, give it a picturesque appearance. The buildings and population seem to have been on the increase, but the adjacent villages

are deserted. The chief languages are the Syrian and Arabic. The manufactures of silk and cotton are in a flourishing condition, and large caravans frequently arrive from Bagdad and Bassora, charged with the products of Persia and India; Consuls from various European powers reside here, to attend the interests of the respective nations.

Damascus is supposed to contain about 180,000 souls. It was formerly celebrated for the manufacture of sabres which seem to have been constructed by a method now lost, of alternate thin layers of iron and steel, so as to bend even to the hilt without breaking, while the edge would divide the firmest mail. The manufactures now consist of silk and cotton, and excellent soap. From the Mediterranean are imported metals and broad cloths; and the caravans of Bagdad bring Persian and Indian articles. This city also increases, the Pashalik of Damascus is esteemed the first in Asia.

Smyrna may be regarded as the third city in Asiatic Turkey, containing about 120,000 souls. This flourishing seat of European commerce is the chief mart of the Levant trade, but the frequent visits of the pestilence greatly impede its prosperity.

Prusa is a beautiful city, in a romantic situation at the northern bottom of mount Olympus. By Tournefort's computation of families, the inhabitants may be about 60,000.

Angora may contain 80,000 inhabitants. The trade is chiefly in yarn, of which our shalloons are made; and in their own manufacture of Angora stuffs, made chiefly of the fine hair of a particular breed of goats.

Tokat is also a flourishing place. The inhabitants are computed at 60,000. The situation is singular, amidst rugged and perpendicular rocks of marble, and the streets are paved, which is a rare circumstance in the Levant. Silk and leather are manufactures of Tokat; but the chief is that of copper utensils, which are sent to Constantinople, and even to Egypt.

Basra, or Bassora, on the estuary of the Euphrates and Tigris, contains 50,000 inhabitants, and is of great commercial consequence, being frequented by numerous vessels from Europe and Asia, and the seat of an English consul.

The great and romantic Bagdad, the seat of the Califs, and the scene of many eastern fictions, has now dwindled into a town of about 20,000 inhabitants. Not far to the south are some ruins of the celebrated Babylon, which have been ably illustrated in a recent work of Major Rennell.

Many an important city of antiquity has sunk into a village, and even the village often into a mass of rubbish, under the destructive domination of the Turks. The ancient and celebrated city of Jerusalem is reduced to a mean town, chiefly existing by the piety of pilgrims.

MANUFACTURES. The chief manufactures of Asiatic Turkey have been already incidentally mentioned. These with rhubarb, and several other drugs, may be regarded as the chief articles of commerce.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of Asia Minor has always been considered as excellent. There is a peculiar softness and serenity in the air, not perceivable on the European side of the Archipelago. The heat of the summer is considerably tempered by the numerous chains of high mountains, some of which are said to be covered with perpetual snow.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The general appearance of Asiatic Turkey may be regarded as mountainous; but intermingled with large and beautiful plains, which, instead of being covered with rich crops of grain, are pastured by the numerous flocks and herds of the Turcomans. The soil, as may be expected, is extremely various; but that of Asia Minor is chiefly a deep clay; and wheat, barley, and durra, form the chief products of agriculture. But excellent grapes and olives abound; and the southern provinces are fertile in dates. In Syria the agriculture is in the most deplorable condition.

RIVERS. The principal river of Asiatic Turkey is, beyond all comparison, the Euphrates, which rises from the mountains of Armenia, a few miles to the N. E. of Erzeron; and chiefly pursues a S. W. direction to Semisat, where it would fall into the Mediterranean, if not prevented by a high ridge of mountains. In this part of its course the Euphrates is joined by the Morad from the east, a stream almost doubling in length that of Euphrates; so that the latter river might more justly be said to spring from mount Ararat, about 160 British miles to the east of

the imputed source. At Semisat, the ancient Samosata, this noble river assumes a southerly direction; then runs an extensive course to the S. E. and after receiving the Tigris, falls by two or three mouths into the gulph of Persia. The comparative course of the Euphrates may be estimated at about 1400 British miles.

Next in importance is the Tigris, which rises to the north of the Medan, about 150 miles south from the sources of the Euphrates, and pursues nearly a regular direction S. E. till it join the Euphrates below Korna, about 60 miles to the north of Bassora; after a comparative course of about 800 miles. The Euphrates and the Tigris are both navigable for a considerable distance from the sea.

The third river in Asiatic Turkey is that called by the Turks Kizil Irmak, the celebrated Halys of antiquity, rising in mount Taurus not far from Erekli, but by other accounts more to the east, and pursuing a winding course to the north, nearly across the whole of Asia Minor, till it join the Euxine sea on the west of the gulph of Sansoun. The river Sacaria, the ancient Sangarius, or Sangaris, rises about 50 miles to the south of Angora, and running to the N. W. joins the Euxine, about 70 miles to the east of Constantinople.

In the next rank may be placed the classical river of Mæander, rising to the north of the ancient city of Apamia, and running, in a winding stream, about 250 British miles. It is called by the Turks Boyue Minder, or the great Mæander, to distinguish it from a small tributary stream, which resembles it in mazes. The Minder, not far from its mouth, is about 100 feet broad; with a swift, muddy, and extremely deep current, having received a considerable accession of waters from the lake of Myus.

The Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, renowned for its golden sands, joins the Archipelago about 90 British miles to the north of the Minder, after a course of similar length.

The other rivers of Asia Minor are far more inconsiderable, though many of them be celebrated in classical history and poetry.

The chief river of Syria is the Orontes, now called Oron or Osi, rising about 80 miles to the N. of Damascus, and running nearly due north till it suddenly turns S. E. near Antioch, after which it soon joins the Mediterranean.

LAKES. Asiatic Turkey also contains numerous lakes. That of Van in the north of Kurdistan, is the most remarkable, being about 80 British miles in length from N. E. to S. W. and about 40 in breadth: it is said to abound with fish.

In Syria, what is called the Dead Sea, may be regarded as a lake of about 50 miles in length, and 12 or 13 in breadth. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilla and the ancient Babylon, is about 30 miles in length, and flows into the Euphrates.

Towards the centre of Asia Minor there is a remarkable saline lake, about 70 miles in length, and a mile or two in breadth, being the Tatta or Palus Salsa of D'Anville's ancient geography.

Numerous other small lakes appear in Natolia, among which may be particularly mentioned that of Ulubad, anciently styled the lake of Apollonia, which according to Tournefort is about 25 miles in circumference, and in some places seven or eight miles wide, sprinkled with several isles and some peninsulas, being a grand receptacle of the waters from mount Olympus. The largest isle is about three miles in circuit, and is called Abouillona, probably from the ancient name of the city which stood on it. About 50 miles to the N. E. was the lake called Ascanius by the ancients, now that of Isnik.

MOUNTAINS. Many of the mountains of Asiatic Turkey deserve particular attention, from their ancient celebrity. The first rank is due to the Taurian chain of antiquity, which was considered as extending from the neighbourhood of the Archipelago to the sources of the Ganges, and the extremities of Asia so far as discovered by the ancients. But this notion little accords with the descriptions of modern travellers, or the researches of recent geography; and we might perhaps with equal justice infer that the Carpathian mountains, the Alps, and the Pyrenees constitute one chain. Science is equally impeded by joining what ought to be divided, as by dividing what ought to be joined. The Caucasian mountains have been well delineated by the Russian travellers, as forming a range from the mouth of the river Cuban, in the N. W. to where the river Kur enters the Caspian, in the S. E. The remaining intelligence is dubious and defective; but it would seem that a chain extends from Caucasus S. W. to

near the bay of Scanderoon. This ridge seems the Anti-Taurus of antiquity : but various parts of it were known by different names. At the other extremity of the Caucasus other chains branch out into Persia ; which they pervade from N. W. to S. E. but they may all be justly considered as terminating in the deserts of the southeastern part of Persia ; or as having so imperfect a connection with the mountains of Hindoo Koh, which supply the western sources of the Indus, that it would be mere theory to regard them as a continued chain. The chain of Taurus, now called Kurun, perhaps from the old Greek name Ceraunus, extends from about 600 miles E. and W. from the Euphrates to near the shores of the Archipelago. A recent traveller found the ascent and descent, between Aintab and Bostan, to occupy three days.; and the heights abound with cedars, savines, and junipers.

Towards the east of Armenia is Ararat. It is a detached mountain, with two summits ; the highest being covered with eternal snow. In one of the flanks is an abyss, or precipice, of prodigious depth, the sides being perpendicular, and of a rough black appearance, as if tinged with smoke. This mountain belongs to Persia, but is here mentioned on account of connexion.

Beyond Ararat are branches of the Caucasian chain ; to which, as is probable, belong the mountains of Clewend, which seem to be the Niphates of antiquity.

In Syria the most celebrated mountain is that of Lebanon, or Libanus, running in the southerly and northerly direction of the Mediterranean shore, and generally at the distance of about 30 or 40 miles. The Anti-Libanus is a short detached chain, running nearly parallel on the east. These mountains are of considerable height, the summits being often covered with snow ; and they seem to be calcareous, the granite not appearing till the neighbourhood of mount Sinai and the Arabian gulph.

The eastern side of the Archipelago presents many mountains of great height and classical fame, chiefly in ranges extending from N. to S. Of these Olympus (now Keshik Dag) is one of the most celebrated, and is described by Tournefort as a vast range covered with perpetual snow. Many small streams spring from Olympus, and the large lake of Ullabad is another receptacle of its waters.

About 140 miles to the west of Olympus rises mount Ida, of great though not equal height. The summit of Ida was by the ancients called Garganus; from which extend western prominences reaching to the Hellespont, and amidst them stood the celebrated city of Troy: Garganus, or the summit of Ida, being about 30 miles from the shore; and giving source to the Granicus, the Simois, and other noted streams, most of which run to the north. To the south of the Minder, or Mæander, the Taurus detaches a chain, called Cadmus and Grius, bending towards the isle of Cos and the Cyclades.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The mountains in Asiatic Turkey are often clothed with immense forests of pines, oaks, beeches, elms, and other trees.

Among the indigenous trees may be distinguished, the olive tree abounding throughout the whole Archipelago and the shores of the Levant; the weeping willow graceful with its slender pendent branches, which has adorned the banks of the Euphrates from time immemorial; the wild olive, bearing a small sweet esculent fruit; the white mulberry; the storax tree, from which exudes the fragrant gum resin of the same name, the pomegranate; almond tree, and peach tree; the cherry, a native of Pontus, whence it was brought to Rome by Lucullus; the lemon and orange; the myrtle, growing plentifully by the side of running streams; the plantain tree; the vine, in a perfectly wild state climbing up the highest trees, and forming verdant grottos among its ample festoons; the mastich, Chio turpentine, and pistachia nut tree; the cypress, the cedar; a few large trees of which still remain on Mount Lebanon, the venerable relics of its sacred forests. The fig tree, and sycamore fig, abounding in Palestine and other parts of Syria; the date tree, the prickly cupped oak, from which are procured the finest Aleppo galls; the oriental plane tree, highly esteemed for its shady tent-like canopy of foliage; and menispermum cocculus, the berries of which, commonly called cocculus indicus, are much used by the natives for taking fish, on account of their narcotic qualities.

Several dying drugs and articles of the materia medica are imported from the Levant, among which may be particularized madder, jalap, scammony, sebesten, croton tinctorium; ricinus communis, the seed of which yields by ex-

pression the castor oil; squirting cucumber, colocynthida; opium poppy, and spikenard.

The best horses in Asiatic Turkey are of Arabian extract, and are sparingly fed with a little barley and minced straw, to accustom them to abstinence and fatigue; but mules and asses are in more general use; beef is scarce and bad. The mutton is superior; and the kid is a favourite repast.

In Asiatic Turkey appears that king of ferocious animals the lion, yet he rarely roams to the west of the Euphrates: large tygers seem to be restricted to the wastes of Hindostan. The hyæna, and the wild boar, are known animals of Asia Minor, together with troops of jackals, which raise dreadful cries in the night.

The ibex, or rock goat, appears on the summits of Caucasus. The goats of Angora have been already mentioned. The common antelope is also an inhabitant of Asia Minor, with numerous deer and hares.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of those extensive and mountainous provinces remains in a deplorable state of imperfection. Ancient Lydia was famous for the production of gold; but in modern times no mines seem to be indicated, except those of copper which supply Tokat; lead, and copper ore, with rock crystals, have been observed in the island of Cyprus.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

THE chief islands in the Archipelago, considered as belonging to Asia, are Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes.

Mytilene, the ancient Lesbos, is the most northerly and largest of these isles, being about 40 British miles in length, by 24 at its greatest breadth. The climate is exquisite: and it was anciently noted for wines, and the beauty of the women.

Scio, the ancient Chios, is about 36 British miles in length, but only about 13 in medial breadth. The Chian wine celebrated by Horace, retains its ancient fame. The Greeks here enjoy considerable freedom and ease; and display such industry that the country resembles a garden. This particular favour arises from the cultivation of the

mastic tree, or rather shrubs, which supply the gum, so acceptable to the ladies of the sultan's seraglio. Tournefort observed here tame partridges, kept like poultry ; and Chandler saw numerous groves of lemons, oranges, and citrons, perfuming the air with the odour of their blossoms, and delighting the eye with their golden fruit. The inhabitants are supposed to be about 60,000.

Samos is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. Tournefort computes the inhabitants at 12,000, all Greeks. The pottery of Samos was anciently excellent ; but at present most branches of industry are neglected. Pitch is prepared from the pine trees in the north part of the island, and the silk, honey, and wax are esteemed.

Cos is about 24 miles in length, by three or four in breadth. It is covered with groves of lemon trees, and there is an oriental plane tree of vast size, and the chief trade is in oranges and lemons.

Rhodes is about 36 British miles in length, by 15 in breadth. It is fertile in wheat, though the soil be of a sandy nature. The population is computed at about 30,000. The city of the same name, in which no Christian is now permitted to dwell, was anciently noted for a colossus in bronze, about 130 feet high. This isle was for two centuries possessed by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, thence styled of Rhodes, till 1523, when they were expelled by the Turks.

Along the southern shore of Asia Minor, there are some small isles ; but they are of no moment when compared with the large and celebrated island of Cyprus, which is about 160 British miles in length, and about 70 at its greatest breadth. In the fifteenth century this isle was possessed by the Venetians ; but in 1570 it was seized by the Turks. The soil is fertile, yet agriculture is in a neglected state. The chief products are silk, cotton, wines, turpentine, and timber. The wine of Cyprus is deservedly celebrated. The oranges are excellent ; and the mountains are covered with hyacinths and anemonies, and other beautiful flowers. The Cypriots are a tall and elegant race ; but the chief beauty of the women consists in their sparkling eyes. To the disgrace of the Turkish government the population of this extensive island is computed at 50,000 souls. So populous was it under the reign of Trajan, that the Jews invaded the island and slew 240,000 of its

inhabitants, since which a Jew is not suffered to enter the island, and so rich as to tempt the avarice of the Romans, who sent thither, to fleece the inhabitants, Cato : he raised a contribution of 7000 talents equal to 2,100,000 crowns. In order to convey this vast sum safely to Rome, he divided it into small portions, which he put up in several boxes, of about two and a half talents each ; and to each box he fastened a long rope with a piece of cork at the end of it ; by which, in case of shipwreck, the treasure might be seen again.

There is not one river in the island, that continues its course in the summer ; but there are many ponds, lakes, and fens, producing a damp and malignant air. The chief cities are Nicosia, the capital and residence of the governor, and Faniagusta.

RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

EXTENT. THIS large portion of the habitable globe, extends almost the whole length of Asia, from about the 57th degree of longitude east of London to more than 190°, or 133 of western longitude. As the northern latitude is very high, the degree shall only be assumed at 30 miles, and the length may thus be computed at about 4000 geographical miles. The greatest breadth from the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi, called in some maps Taimura, to the Altaian chain of mountains on the south of the sea of Baikal, may be 28° or 1680 geographical miles, an extent which will be found to exceed that of Europe.

BOUNDARIES. The farthest eastern boundary is that of Asia, and the seas of Kamchatka and Ochotsk ; while the northern is the Arctic ocean. On the west the frontiers correspond with those between Asia and Europe. The river Cuban, part of the Caucasian chain, and an ideal line, divide the Russian territory from Turkey and Persia on the south. The boundary then ascends through the desert of Issim, till it meets the vast empire of China ; the limits between Russia and Chinese Tatory being partly an ideal line ; and partly the river Argoon, which joined with the Onon constitutes the great river Amur.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The population of Asiatic Russia may be regarded as wholly primitive, except a few Russian colonies recently planted, and the Techuks in the part opposite to America, who have been supposed to have proceeded from that continent, because their persons and customs are different from those of the other Asiatic tribes. The radically distinct languages

amount to seven, independent of many dialects and mixtures.

When the Russians began the conquest of the country, being unconscious of its extent, the name of Sibir, or Siberia which belonged only to a western province was gradually diffused over the whole, comprising half of Asia.

The boundary between China and Russia is the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude; eighty degrees (latitude fifty) computed at 39 geographical miles, will yield the result of 3120 miles. Its history therefore becomes singular and interesting.

ANTIQUITIES. The most curious antiquities seem to be the stone tombs which abound in some steppes, particularly near the river Yenesei, representing in rude sculpture human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, and other objects. Here are found besides human bones those of horses and oxen, with fragments of pottery and ornaments of dress.

RELIGION. The Grecian system of the Christian faith, which is embraced by the Russians, has made considerable progress in their Asiatic possessions. Many of the Tatar tribes in the S. W. are Mahometans; others follow the superstition of the Dalai Lama, and the more eastern Tatars are generally addicted to the Shaman religion, a system chiefly founded on the self-existence of matter, a spiritual world, and the general restitution of all things. This system is intimately connected with that of the Dalai Lama, and is so widely diffused, that some have asserted Shamanism to be the most prevalent system on the globe.

The archiepiscopal see of Tobolsk is the metropolitan of Russian Asia in the north, and that of Astracan in the south. There is another see, that of Irkutsk and Nerzhinsk, and perhaps a few others of recent foundation.

GOVERNMENT. Siberia is divided into two great governments, that of Tobolsk in the west, and Irkutsk in the east. In the S. W. is the government of Caucasus, with one or two other divisions, intermingling Europe and Asia. At a distance from the capital the government becomes proportionably lax, and tribute is the chief mark of subjection.

POPULATION. The population of Siberia cannot be computed at above three millions and a half; so that Europe can in future have little to apprehend from the Tataric swarms. Small Russian colonies have been established in several of the distant provinces and isles. The political importance and relations of this part of the Russian empire chiefly relate to China and Japan.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of Asiatic Russia vary with the numerous tribes by whom that extensive region is peopled.

The manners of the Tatars, who are the most numerous, and the same people with the Huns of antiquity, are minutely described by those authors who have delineated the fall of the Roman empire, prior to which period they seem to have been absolutely unknown to the ancients. The Monguls are wholly Nomadic, their herds consisting of horses, camels, oxen, sheep and goats. The women tan leather, dig the culinary roots, prepare the winter provisions, dried or salted, and distil the koumiss, or spirit of mare's milk. The men hunt the numerous beasts and game that roam through the vast wilds. Their tents are formed of a kind of felt, and in some parts they erect little temples, and the priests have also wooden hovels around the temples. The Kalmuks are divided into three ranks; the nobility, whom they call white bones; the common people, who are bondmen, and termed black bones; and the clergy, descending from both, who are free. The power of the *Taidsha*, or chief prince, consists solely in the number and opulence of his subjects, territory being of no estimation in so wide a region. These subjects form an *Oluss*, divided into *Imaks*, from 150 to 300 families, each Imak being commanded by a *Saissan*, or noble. The tribute is about a tenth part of the cattle and other property; but on the first summons every man must appear on horseback before the prince, who dismisses those who are unfit for the fatigues of war. The weapons are bows, lances, and sabres, and sometimes fire-arms; and the rich warriors are clothed in mail of interwoven rings, like that used in Europe till the fifteenth century.

The Monguls are rather short in stature, with a flat visage, small oblique eyes, thick lips, and a short chin, with a scanty beard; the hair black, and the complexion of a reddish or yellowish brown; but that of the women is clear,

and of a healthy white and red. They have surprising quickness of sight and apprehension, and are docile, hospitable, beneficent, active, and voluptuous. Industry is a virtue entirely female, yet great, and accompanied with perpetual cheerfulness. Their religious books are in the dialect of Tangut, or Tibet, and there is a schoolmaster in every imak, who imparts more knowledge to the boys than would be expected. Animal food is abundant, and sometimes mixed with vegetable, while the general drink is water; but they sometimes indulge in sour milk, prepared after the Tatarian manner, butter milk, and koumiss; but mead and brandy are now greater favourites. When pasturage begins to fail, the whole tribes strike their tents, generally from ten to fifteen times in the year, proceeding in the summer to the northern, and in the winter to the southern wilds.

Such, with some slight shades of difference, are also the manners of the Tatars and Mandshurs.

The three distinct barbaric nations of Tatars, Monguls, and Tunguses, or Mandshurs, are by far the most interesting in these middle regions of Asia, as their ancestors have overturned the greatest empires, and repeatedly influenced the destiny of half the globe.

LANGUAGE. The languages of all these original nations are radically different; and among the Tunguses, Monguls, and Tatars, there are some slight traces of literature; and not a few manuscripts in their several languages. In the Mongul language there are also many books, written in the various countries to which their wide conquests extended.

CITIES AND TOWNS. In Asiatic Russia the principal city is Astracan, at the mouth of the Volga, which is supposed to contain 70,000 inhabitants. The wooden houses have exposed it to frequent conflagrations, and attempts have been vainly made to enforce the use of brick. There are twenty-five Russian churches, and two convents. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Papists, have also their places of worship; and even the Hindoos have been permitted to erect a temple. The chief trade of Astracan is in salt and fish, particularly sturgeon and kaviar from the Volga; and it also attracts some portion of oriental commerce.

The chief place after Astracan is Orenburg, founded in the year 1740, to protect the acquisitions in these parts, and promote their commerce. Nor have these views failed, for Orenburg is the seat of a considerable trade with the tribes on the east of the Caspian.

On passing the Uralian chain, first occurs the city of Tobolsk, which only contains about 15,000 souls, but is esteemed the capital of Siberia. Tobolsk is more distinguished as the residence of the governor and archbishop, than for the importance of its commerce.

On the river Angara, which issues from the sea of Baikal stands Irkutsk, supposed to contain 12,000 inhabitants. There are several churches and other edifices of stone, and the wooden houses are large and convenient. Irkutsk is the chief mart of the commerce between Russia and China, the see of an archbishop, and the seat of supreme jurisdiction over eastern Siberia.

On the wide and frozen Lena stands Yakutsk, with some stone churches, but the houses are mostly of wood. The Lena is here about two leagues in width, (though about 700 miles from its mouth,) but is greatly impeded with ice.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. There are some manufactures, particularly in leather, at Astracan. Isinglass is chiefly manufactured on the shores of the Caspian, from the sounds or air bladder of the sturgeon, and the beluga. Kaviar is the salted roe of large fish. There is a considerable fabric of nitre, about 40 miles to the north of Astracan. Near the Uralian mountains are several manufactures in iron and copper.

The chief commerce of this part of the Russian empire consists in sables, and other valuable furs, which are eagerly bought by the Chinese, who return tea, silk, and porcelain; that with the Kirguses is carried on by exchanging Russian woollen cloths, iron, and household articles, for horses, cattle, sheep, and beautiful sheep-skins. On the Black Sea there is some commerce with Turkey, the exports being furs, kaviar, iron, linen, &c. and the imports wine, fruit, coffee, silks, rice. In the trade on the Caspian the exports are the same, but the return chiefly silk.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. In Asiatic Russia the climate extends from 50° to 73 N. from the vine at the bottom of Caucasus, to the solitary lichen on the rocks of the Arctic ocean. The general climate may more justly be

regarded as frigid than temperate. The finest climate in the eastern parts seems to be that of Daouria, or the province around Nershinsk ; and the numerous towns on the Amur evince the great superiority of what is called Chinese Tatory, which is comparatively a fertile and temperate region.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. Many parts of Siberia are totally incapable of agriculture ; but in the southern and western districts the soil is of remarkable fertility. Toward the north of Kolyvan barley generally yields more than twelve fold, and oats commonly twenty fold. Buckwheat, in this black light mould, is apt to run into stalk, but sown in the poorest spots yields from twelve to fifteen fold. Exclusive of winter wheat, most of the usual European grains prosper in southern Siberia. The best rhubarb abounds on the banks of the Ural, or Jaik in the southern districts.

RIVERS. Some of the largest rivers of Asia belong to the Russian empire. The Ob, including its wide estuary, may be said to hold a comparative course of 1,900 British miles, while that of the Yenesei is about 1750, and that of the Lena 1570.

The Ob is navigable almost to its source, that is, to the lake of Altyn, and abounds with fish, but the sturgeon of the Irtysh are the most esteemed. After it has been frozen for some time, the water becomes foul and fetid, but is purified in the spring by the melting of the snow.

Next is the Yenesei, which is considered as deriving its source from the mountains to the S. W. of the Baikal, in the river called Siskit ; but the name Yenesei is not imparted till many streams have joined, when it holds its course almost due north to the Arctic ocean. This river has some rapids, but is navigable for a great way.

The last of these large rivers is the Lena, which rises to the west of the sea of Baikal, and, till near Yakutsk, pursues a course from the S. W. to the N. E. a direction of considerable utility, as affording navigation to the remote regions. From Yakutsk the course is nearly due north ; the channel being of great breadth and full of islands. Such are the three largest rivers of Asiatic Russia ; others though of considerable magnitude we must omit.

LAKES. In the north of Siberia the most considerable lake is that of Piazinsko. In the south the sea of

Baikal is fresh, but, the extent far exceeding that of any other lake. Between the river Ob and the Irtysh is a large lake, about half the length of the Baikal, or 170 miles in length, divided by an island into two parts, called the lakes of T'chany and Soumi. In this quarter there are many smaller lakes, and others to the north of the Caspian, some of which are salt, particularly that of Bogdo, near the small mountain so called.

MOUNTAINS. The Uralian mountains have been already described in the account of European Russia. The grandest chain in Siberia is that called the mountains of Altai, which, according to Pallas, crossing the head of the Irtysh, presents precipitous and snowy summits between that river and the sources of the Ob. Thence it winds in various courses, and under different names, to the eastern extremity of Asia.

According to Dr. Pallas, Bogdo Tolu, or Bogdo Alim, the Almighty mountain, rears its pointed summits with striking sublimity, on the limit between the Soongarian and Mongolian deserts, while the chain passes south, and is supposed to join those of Tibet.

The western part of the Altaian chain is chiefly argillaceous, with granitic heights, but many parts are calcareous. Sinnaia-Sopka, or the blue mountain, the chief summit in the government of Kolyvan, does not exceed 3000 feet above the sea.

That space of the Altaian chain which runs between the Ob and the Yenesei has been little explored; but affords granite, porphyry, jasper, primitive and secondary limestone, with serpentine, petrosilex, slate, mountain crystal, carnelian, and calcedony: one of the highest summits is the Sabin, near the source of the Abakan. In general they are bare, the chief forests being in the bottoms near the rivers.

The mountains of Nershink, or Russian Daouria, send branches towards the Selenga, and the Amur. Among the products may be named granite, porphyry, jasper, calcedony, carnelian, onyx, large smoaky topazes, beryl, or aqua-marine, the real topaz, and the jacint. In this opulent district are also salt lakes, and warm springs with vitriolic pyrites, ores of alum, native sulphur, and coal. The metals are zinc, iron, copper, and many mines of lead ore, containing silver and gold.

The classical range of Caucasus forms a partial limit between the Russian empire, and those of Turkey and Persia. Between the Euxine and the Caspian the Caucasian chain extends for about 400 British miles. The summits are covered with eternal ice and snow; and consist as usual of granite, succeeded by slate and limestone. In ancient times they produced gold; and there are still vestiges of silver, lead, and copper; and it is supposed of lapis lazuli. The vales abound with excellent forest trees.

Although Asiatic Russia is so abundant in forests that particular names have not been assigned to so vast an extent, yet the northern and eastern parts of Siberia are bare of wood; the Norway fir not being found farther north than latitude 60°. In Europe, on the contrary, the Norway fir extends to the arctic circle.

STEPHS. After the forests, may be considered the extensive level plains, almost peculiar to Asia, and some parts of European Russia: but somewhat similar to the sandy deserts of Africa. The stepps are not so barren of vegetation, being mostly only sandy, with scattered patches of thin grass, and at wide intervals a stunted thicket.

On the eastern side of the Volga begins an extensive stepp, formerly called that of the Kalmuks, from tribes who used to roam there, till they withdrew from the Russian dominions in 1771. This vast desert extends about 700 British miles from E. to W. and including Issim, nearly as far from N. to S. but on the N. of the Caspian the breadth does not exceed 220.

The stepp of Barabin, N. W. of Omsk, is about 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth, containing a few salt lakes, but in general of a good black soil, interspersed with forests of birch. That of Issim aspires but rarely to the same quality: and in both are found many tombs, inclosing the remains of pastoral chiefs, Tatar or Mongul.

The vast space between the Ob, and the Yenesei, from the north of Tomsk to the Arctic ocean, is regarded as one stepp, being a prodigious level with no appearance of a mountain, and scarcely of a hill.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Russia in Asia, with regard to its vegetable production, is divided by nature into two unequal portions: The smaller of these is bounded on the west by the Don, and Wolga, on the east by the Uralian mountains, and on the south by

the Caspian sea, and the Turkish, and Persian frontiers. The climate of this district is delicious, and the soil fertile, it slopes towards the south, and is protected from the northern blasts by lofty mountainous ridges; the cedar, the cypress, the savine, red juniper, beech, and oak, clothe the sides of the mountains; the almond, the peach, and the fig abound in the warm recesses of the rocks; the quince, the apricot, the willow-leaved pear, and the vine are of frequent occurrence in the thickets, and on the edges of the forests. The olive, the stately wide-spreading eastern plane tree, the laurel, the bay, and laurustinus, grow in abundance on the shores of the sea of Azof, and the Caspian; and the romantic vales of the Caucasus are perfumed and enlivened with the syringa, the jasmine, the lilach, and the Caucasian rose.

By far the larger part of the Russian dominions in Asia is the wide expanse of Siberia, sloping towards the north, and shut up on the south by the snowy summits of the Altaian, and other mountainous chains. As the winters are of great length and severity throughout the whole of this tract, none but the hardiest vegetables are found to inhabit it. Even the common heath, and bog myrtle, which cover the lower parts of Lapland, venture but a very little way eastward of the Uralian mountains. We are not however hence to conclude that the mighty rivers of Siberia pour their everlasting streams through a barren waste of perpetual snow; on the contrary they are bordered with inexhaustible forests of birch, of alder, of lime, of Tatarian maple, of black and white poplar, and aspen, besides millions of noble trees of the pine species, such as the fir, the Scotch pine, the larch, the stone pine, the yew-leaved fir.

In the greater part of Asiatic Russia the rein deer, which extends to the farther east, performs the office of the horse, the cow, and the sheep; if we except Kamchatka, where dogs are used for carriage. But the south may perhaps be considered as the native country of that noble animal, the horse, being there found wild, as well as a species of the ass. The terrible urus or bison is yet found in the Caucasian mountains; and the argali, or wild sheep, is hunted in Siberia. The ibex or rock goat is frequent on the Caucasian precipices: and large stags occur in the mountains near the Baikal, with the musk animal; the wild boar, wolves, foxes, and bears, of various names and

descriptions, are also found. That kind of weazel called the sable affords a valuable traffic by its furs. Some kinds of hares appear, little known in other regions; and the castor or beaver is an inmate of the Yenesei.

The horses of the Monguls are of singular beauty, some being ribbed like the tiger, and others spotted like the leopard. The nostrils of the foals are commonly slitted, that they may inhale more air in the course. The three great Nomadic nations of the centre of Asia, the Tatars, Monguls, and Mandshurs, have no aversion to horse flesh, which is in their opinion superior to beef; but it is never eaten raw, as fabled, though they sometimes dry it in the sun and air, when it will keep for a long time, and is eaten without farther preparation. The *adon*, or stud of a noble Mongul, may contain between three and four thousand horses and mares. The cattle are of a middling size, and pass the winter in the stepps or deserts. As these nations use the milk of mares, so they employ the cow for draught, a string being passed through a hole made in their nostril. Mr. Bell met a beautiful Tatar girl astride on a cow, attended by two male servants.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of Siberia is equally fertile. Peter the Great, who directed his attention to every object of utility, was the first who ordered these remote mines to be explored.

The chief gold mines of Siberia are those of Catherinburg or Ekatheringburg, on the east of the Uralian mountains, about latitude 57° , where an office for the management of the mines was instituted in 1719. The mines of various sorts extend to a considerable distance on the N. and S. of Catherinburg, and the founderies, chiefly for copper and iron, are computed at 105. But the gold mines of Beresof, in this vicinity, were of little consequence till the reign of Elizabeth. The mines of Nerzhinsk, discovered in 1704, are principally of lead mixed with silver and gold; and those of Kolyvan, chiefly in the Schlangenberg, or mountain of serpents, so called by the German miners, began to be worked for the crown in 1748.

But the iron mines of Russia are of the most solid and lasting importance, particularly those which supply the numerous founderies of the Uralian mountains.

Rock salt is chiefly found near the Ileik, not far from Orenburg. Coal is scarcely known; but sulphur, alum,

sal-ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, are found in abundance.

Nor must the gems of Siberia be omitted, of which there is a great variety. Common topazes are found in Adunshollo, in quadrangular prisms, as is also the jacint. The beryl or aqua-marine is found in what are called the gem mines of Moursintsky near Catherinburg, along with the chrysolite. Red garnets abound near the sea of Baikal; and a yellowish white kind was discovered by Laxman. The green felspar of Siberia is a beautiful stone, by the Russians carved into various ornaments. The Daourin mountains between the Onon and the Argoon also produce elegant onyx; and several other rare and beautiful stones are found in other places.

ISLES BELONGING TO ASIATIC RUSSIA.

THESE were formerly divided into the Aleutian, Andrenovian, and Kurilian groups, with the Fox isles, which extend to the promontory of Alaska in North America. Of the Aleutian isles, on the east of Kamchatka, there are only two worth notice, Beering's isle and Cooper isle. The Andrenovian isles may be regarded as the same with the Fox islands, being the western part of the same range; and form a group of six or more isles, about 500 miles to the S. E. of Beering's.

The Kurilian isles extend from the southern promontory of Kamchatka towards the land of Jesso and Japan, being supposed to be about 20 in number, of which the largest are Poro Muschir, and Mokanturu. Several of these isles are volcanic; and some contain forests of birch, alder, and pine. Most of them swarm with foxes of various colours. The inhabitants of the Kurilian isles seem to be of similar origin with the Kamchadals.

THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

IN the last century the Chinese emperors, of the Mandshur race, extended this wide empire over many western countries, inhabited by wandering hordes of Monguls, Mandshurs, and Tatars; and established such firm influence over Tibet, that the Chinese empire may now be considered as extending from those parts of the Pacific ocean called the Chinese and Japanic seas, to the rivers Sarasou and Sihon in the west, a space of 81° , which, taking the medial latitude of 30° , will amount to nearly 4,200 geographical, or 4,900 British miles. From N. to S. this vast empire may be computed from the Uralian mountains, lat. 50° , to the southern part of China about lat. 21° , being 29 degrees of latitude, 1740 geographical, or nearly 2,030 British miles. It may be divided into three parts. viz. China proper, the territory of the Monguls and Mandshurs, and the interior country of Tibet.

CHINA PROPER.

THIS distinguished region is, by the natives, styled Tchon-Koue, which signifies the centre of the earth, as they proudly regard other countries as mere skirts and appendages to their own. After the conquest of the northern part by the descendants of Zingis, it was styled Cathay, while the southern part was known by the appellation of Mangi. The origin of the name of China, or Tsin, seems uncertain; but the connexion between this word and the Sinæ of the ancients appears imaginary, the country of the Sinæ being shown by Gossellin to be much farther to the west. The Mahometan travellers of the ninth century, published by Renaudot, call this country Sin, but the Persians pronounce it Tchin.

China Proper extends from the great wall in the north to the Chinese sea in the south, about 1140 geographical, or 1330 British miles. The breadth from the shores of the Pacific to the frontiers of Tibet may be computed at 884 geographical, or nearly 1030 British miles. In square miles the contents have been estimated at 1,297,999. On the east and south the boundaries are maritime, and to the north they are marked by the great wall and the desert of Shamo; the confines with Tibet on the west seem to be chiefly indicated by an ideal line, though occasionally more strongly marked by mountains and rivers.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The population of China seems wholly aboriginal, but the form of the features appears to imply intimate affinity with the Tatars, Monguls and Mandshurs; yet the Chinese probably constitute a fourth grand division, not strictly derived from either of these barbaric races.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The Chinese history is said to commence, in a clear and constant narration, about 2500 years before the birth of Christ. The founder of the monarchy is Fo-Hi; but the regular history begins with Yao. The dynasties or families who have successively held the throne amount to 22, from the first named Hia, to the present house of Tsing. Sometimes the monarchy is divided into that of the south, which is esteemed the ruling and superior inheritance; and that of the north. The Mandshurs to the north of China repeatedly influenced the succession to the empire; but the Monguls under Zingis and his successors seized the five northern provinces. Hoaitsing, who began to reign A. D. 1627, was the last prince of the Chinese dynasties. Some unsuccessful wars against the Mandshurs, had rendered this emperor melancholy and cruel; and insurrections arose, the most formidable being conducted by two chiefs Li and Techang. The former besieged Peking, which was surrendered by the general discontent, and the emperor, retiring to his garden, first slew his daughter with his sabre, and afterwards hanged himself on a tree, having only lived 36 years. The usurper seemed firmly seated on the throne, when a prince of the royal family invited the Mandshurs, who advanced under their king Tson Te. The Mandshur monarch had scarcely entered China when he died; and his son of six years of age was declared emperor, the regency being entrusted to his uncle. The young prince named Chun Tchig, was the first emperor of the present dynasty, and has been followed by four princes of the same Mandshur family.

ANTIQUITIES. The chief remain of ancient art in China is that stupendous wall, extending across the northern boundary. This work, which is deservedly esteemed among the grandest labours of art, is conducted over the summits of high mountains, some of which rise to the height of 5225 feet, across the deepest vales, over wide rivers by means of arches; and in many parts is doubled or trebled to command important passes and at the distance of almost every hundred yards is a tower or massy bastion. The extent is computed at 1500 miles; but in some parts of smaller danger it is not equally strong nor complete, and towards the N. W. is only a rampart of earth. Near Koo-peko the wall is 25 feet in height, and at the top about 15

feet thick: some of the towers which are square, are 48 feet high and about 50 feet wide.

When this stupendous wall was erected is uncertain; some authors say it has been standing 2000 years, and others only 600.

RELIGION. According to Du Halde the ancient Chinese worshipped a supreme being, whom they styled Chang Ti, or Tien. They also worshipped subaltern spirits who presided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Under this system sacrifices were offered on the summits of hills.

About A. D. 65, the sect of Fo was introduced into China from Hindostan, and the chief tenets are those of the Hindoos, among which is the metempsychosis, or transition of souls from one animal to another. The priests are denominated Bonzes, and Fo is supposed to be gratified by the favour shewn to his servants.

Since the fifteenth century many Chinese literati have embraced a new system, which acknowledges an universal principle, under the name of Taiki, seeming to correspond with the soul of the world of some ancient philosophers. The Chinese believe also in petty demons who delight in minute acts of evil, or good. They admit of monasteries; and the Chinese temples are always open, nor is there any subdivision of the month known in the country.

GOVERNMENT. The government of China is well known to be patriarchal. The emperor is indeed absolute; but the examples of tyranny are rare, as he is taught to regard his people as his children, and not as his slaves. All the officers of government pass through a regular education, and a progress of rank, which are held indispensable. Of these officers, who have been called mandarins, there are nine classes, from the judge of the village to the prime minister. The profession requiring a long and severe course of study, the practice of government remains, like that of medicine, unshaken by exterior events; and while the imperial throne is subject to accident and force, the remainder of the machine pursues its usual circle.

The governors of the provinces have great and absolute power, yet rebellions are not unfrequent. Bribery is also an universal vice; and the Chinese government, like many others, is more fair in the theory than in the practice. Yet the amazing population, and the general ease and happi-

ness of the people, evince that the administration of the government must be more beneficent than any yet known among mankind.

Agreeably to a table published by Sir G. Staunton there are in China Proper 18 provinces, 1,297,999 square miles, and 333,000,000 of inhabitants.

The army has been computed at 1,000,000 of infantry, and 800,000 cavalry; and the revenues at about thirty-six millions and a half of Tahels, or ounces of silver, or about nine millions sterling; but as rice and other grain are also paid in kind, it may be difficult to estimate the precise amount or relative value compared with European money.

Sir G. Staunton, estimates the revenue at 200,000,000 of silver, which, he says, is equal to 66,000,000*l.* sterling; but valuing the ounce of silver at five shillings, the amount is 50,000,000*l.*

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The Chinese being a people in the highest state of civilization, their manners and customs might require a long description; the limits of this work will only admit a few hints. In the sea ports there is an appearance of fraud and dishonesty; but it is to be supposed that this is not the general character. The indolence of the upper classes, who are even fed by their servants, and the nastiness of the lower, who eat almost every kind of animal, in whatever way it may have died, are also striking defects, occasioned, perhaps, by dire necessity in so populous a country. To the same cause may be imputed the exposition of the infants. On the other hand the character of the Chinese is mild and tranquil, and universal affability is very rarely interrupted by the slightest tincture of harshness or passion. The general drink is tea, of which a large vessel is prepared in the morning for the occasional use of the family during the day. Marriages are conducted solely by the will of the parents, and polygamy is allowed. The bride is purchased by a present to her parents, and is never seen by her husband till after the ceremony. It is not permitted to bury in cities or towns, and the sepulchres are commonly on barren hills and mountains, where there is no chance that agriculture will disturb the dead. The colour of mourning is white, that personal neglect or forgetfulness may appear in its squalor. The walls of the houses are sometimes of brick, or of hardened clay, but more commonly of wood; and they generally

consist only of a ground floor, though in those of merchants there be sometimes a second story, which forms the warehouse. The dress is long with large sleeves, and a flowing girdle of silk. The shirt and drawers vary according to the seasons, and in winter the use of furs is general from the skin of the sheep to that of the ermine. The head is covered with a small hat in the form of a funnel, but this varies among the superior classes, whose rank is distinguished by a large bead on the top, diversified in colour according to the quality.

LANGUAGE. The language is esteemed the most singular on the face of the globe. Almost every syllable constitutes a word, and there are scarcely 1500 distinct sounds; yet in the written language there are at least 80,000 characters, or different forms of letters, so that every sound may have about 50 senses. The leading characters are denominated keys, which are not of difficult acquisition. The language seems originally to have been hieroglyphical; but afterwards the sound alone was considered.

EDUCATION. The schools of education are numerous, but the children of the poor are chiefly taught to follow the business of their fathers. In a Chinese treatise of education published by Du Halde, the following are recommended as the chief topics. 1. The six virtues, namely, prudence, piety, wisdom, equity, fidelity, concord. 2. The six laudable actions, to wit, obedience to parents, love to brothers, harmony with relations, affection for neighbours, sincerity with friends, and mercy with regard to the poor and unhappy. 3. The six essential points of knowledge, that of religious rites, music, archery, horsemanship, writing, and accounts. Such a plan seems well calculated to make good citizens.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The chief cities of China are Peking and Nankin, or the northern and southern courts. Peking occupies a large space of ground; but the streets are wide, and the houses seldom exceed one story. The length of what is called the Tatar city is about four miles, and the suburbs are considerable. By the best information which the recent embassy could procure, the population was computed at 3,000,000. The houses indeed are neither large nor numerous; but it is common to find three generations with all their wives and children under one

roof, as they eat in common, and one room contains many beds. The walls of this capital are of considerable strength and thickness; and the nine gates of no inelegant architecture. Strict police and vigilance are observed, and the streets are crowded with passengers and carriages. The grandest edifice is the imperial palace, which consists of many picturesque buildings, dispersed over a wide and greatly diversified space of ground, so as to present the appearance of enchantment.

Nankin, which was the residence of the court till the fifteenth century, is a yet more extensive city than Pekin, and is reputed the largest in the empire. The walls are said to be about seventeen British miles in circumference.

The chief edifices are the gates with a few temples; and a celebrated tower clothed with porcelain, about 200 feet in height, which seems to have been chiefly erected as a memorial, or an ornament, like the Grecian and Roman columns.

To the American reader one of the most interesting cities is Canton, which is said to contain a million and a half of inhabitants; numerous families residing in barks on the river. The chief export is that of tea, of which it is said that about 13,000,000 of pounds weight are consumed by Great Britain and her dependencies, about 5,000,000 by the rest of Europe, and above 2,000,000 by the United States. The imports from England, chiefly woollens, with lead, tin, furs, and other articles, are supposed to exceed a million; and the exports a million and a half, besides the trade between China and their possessions in Hindostan. Other nations carry to Canton the value of about 200,000*l.* and return with articles to the value of about 600,000*l.* So that the balance in favour of China may be computed at a million sterling.

The other large cities of China are almost innumerable; and many of the villages are of a surprising size.

EDIFICES. The most striking and peculiar edifices in China are the pagodas or towers, which sometimes rise to the height of nine stories, of more than twenty feet each. The temples, on the contrary, are commonly low buildings, always open to the devout worshippers of polytheism.

ROADS. The roads are generally kept in excellent order, with convenient bridges. That near the capital is thus described by Sir George Staunton: "This road forms

a magnificent avenue to Peking for persons and commodities bound for that capital, from the east and from the south. It is perfectly level; the centre, to the width of about 20 feet, is paved with flags of granite, brought from a considerable distance, and of a size from six to sixteen feet in length, and about four feet broad. On each side of this granite pavement is a road unpaved, wide enough for carriages to cross upon it. The road was bordered in many places with trees."

INLAND NAVIGATION. The canals of China have long excited the envy and wonder of other nations. The imperial canal which, in utility and labour, exceeds the enormous wall, is said to have been begun in the tenth century of the Christian era, 30,000 men having been employed for 43 years in its completion.

"The ground which intervened between the bed of this artificial river, and that of the Eu-ho, was cut down to the depth of about 30 feet, in order to permit the waters of the former to flow with a gentle current into the latter. Their descent is afterwards checked occasionally by flood-gates thrown across the canal, wherever they were judged to be necessary. They consist merely of a few planks let down separately one upon another, by grooves cut into the sides of the two solid abutments or piers of stone, that project one from each bank, leaving a space in the middle wide enough to admit a passage for the largest vessels employed upon the canal. As few parts of it are entirely level, the use of these flood-gates assisted by others cut through its banks, is to regulate the quantity of water in the canal.

"Light bridges of timber are thrown across those piers, which are easily withdrawn whenever vessels are about to pass underneath."

The same author describes this canal as beginning at Lin-sin-choo, where it joins the river Eu-ho, and extending to Han-choo-foo, in an irregular line of about 500 miles. Where it joins the Hoan-ho, or Yellow River, it is about three quarters of a mile in breadth.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The manufactures of China are so multifarious as to embrace almost every article of industry. The most noted manufacture is that of porcelain, and is followed in trade by those of silk, cotton, paper, &c.

The internal commerce of China is immense, but the external trade unimportant, considering the vastness of the empire ; a scanty intercourse exists with Russia and Japan : but the chief export is that of tea, which is sent to England to the value of about one million yearly.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The European intercourse with China being chiefly confined to the southern part of the empire, the climate is generally considered as hot, whereas at Pekin in the north the average degree of the thermometer is under 20° in the night during the winter months ; and even in the day it is considerably below the freezing point.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. The face of the country is infinitely diversified ; and though in a general view it be flat and fertile, and intersected with numerous large rivers and canals, yet there are chains of mountains and other districts of a wild and savage nature.

The soil is various, and agriculture by the account of all travellers is carried to the utmost degree of perfection.

“ Where the face of the hill or mountain is not nearly perpendicular to the level surface of the earth, the slope is converted into a number of terraces, one above another, each of which is supported by mounds of stone. By this management it is not uncommon to see the whole face of a mountain completely cultivated to the summit. Pulse, grain, yams, sweet potatoes, onions, carrots, turnips, and a variety of other culinary plants are produced upon them. A reservoir is sunk in the top of the mountain. The rain-water collected in it is conveyed by channels successively to the different terraces, placed upon the mountain’s sides.

“ The collection of manure is an object of so much attention with the Chinese, that a prodigious number of old men and women, as well as of children, incapable of much other labour, are constantly employed about the streets, public roads, banks of canals, and rivers, with baskets tied before them, and holding in their hands small wooden rakes to pick up the dung of animals and offals of any kind that may answer the purpose of manure ; but above all others, except the dung of fowls, the Chinese farmers prefer night soil. This manure is mixed sparingly with a portion of stiff loamy earth, and formed into cakes dried afterwards in the sun. In this state it sometimes becomes an

object of commerce, and is sold to farmers, who never employ it in a compact state.

“The quantity of manure thus collected must however be still inadequate to that of the cultured ground, which bears so vast a proportion to the whole surface of the country. It is reserved therefore in the first instance, for the purpose of procuring a quick succession of culinary vegetables, and for forcing the production of flowers and fruit.

“The great object of Chinese agriculture, the production of grain, is generally obtained with little manure, and without letting the land lie fallow. Irrigation is practised to a very great extent. The husbandry is singularly neat, and not a weed is to be seen.”

RIVERS. In describing the rivers of this great empire, two are well known to deserve particular attention, namely, the Hoan-ho and the Kian-ku. The sources of the first, also called the Yellow River, from the quantity of mud which it devolves, are two lakes, situated about the 35th° of north latitude, and about 97th° east from Greenwich. This prodigious river is extremely winding and devious in its course, and discharges itself into the Yellow Sea. Its comparative course may be estimated at about 1800 British miles: and its velocity equals seven or eight miles in the hour.

The Kian-ku rises in the vicinity of the sources of the Hoan-ho, and winds nearly as far to the south as the Hoan-ho does to the north. After washing the walls of Nankin it enters the sea about 100 miles to the south of Hoan-ho. Its length is estimated at about 2200 English miles. These two rivers may be considered as the longest on the face of the globe; they certainly equal if they do not exceed, the famous river of the Amazons in South America.

LAKES. Nor is China destitute of noble and extensive lakes. Du Halde informs us that the lake of Tong-tint-hou, in the province of Hou-quang, is more than 80 leagues in circumference. That of Poyang-hou, in the province of Kiang-si, is about 30 leagues in circumference. Upon a lake near the imperial canal were observed thousands of small boats and rafts, constructed for a singular species of fishery. “On each boat or raft are ten or a dozen birds, which, at a signal from the owner, plunge into the water; and it is astonishing to see the enormous size

of fish with which they return grasped within their bills, without swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master was pleased to return to them for encouragement and food."

MOUNTAINS. Concerning the extensive ranges of Chinese mountains, no general and accurate information has yet been given. From Mr. Arrowsmith's recent map of Asia it appears that a considerable branch extends from those in central Asia, running south to the river Hoan-ho. Two grand ranges running E. and W. intersect the centre of the empire, seemingly continuations of the enormous chains of Tibet. In the southern part of China the principal ridges appear to run from north to south.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Among the trees and larger shrubs we find particularized the *thuya orientalis*, an elegant evergreen; the camphor tree, whose wood makes an excellent and durable timber, and from the roots of which that fragrant substance camphor is procured by distillation; the oleander-leaved *euphorbia*, a large shrub used as a material for hedges; the tallow tree, from the fruit of which a green wax is procured that is manufactured into candles; the spreading banyan tree, growing among loose rocks; the weeping willow; Spanish chesnut, and the larch. Of the fruit trees the following are the principal: China orange; the plantain tree; the tamarind; the white and paper mulberry tree; the former of these is principally cultivated for the use of its leaves, on which the silk worms are fed; and of the bark of the latter, paper, and a kind of cloth are made. Nor must the two species of the tea tree be left unnoticed, whose leaves constitute so large a proportion of the European trade with China.

There are few animals peculiar to the Chinese territory. Du Halde asserts that the lion is a stranger to this country, but there are tigers, buffaloes, wild boars, bears, rhinoceroses, camels, deer, &c. The musk deer is a singular animal of China as well as Tibet. Among the birds many are remarkable for their beautiful forms and colours, in which they are rivalled by a variety of moths and butterflies.

MINERALS. Among the metals lead and tin seem to be the rarest. China possesses mines of gold, silver, iron, white copper, common copper and mercury, together with

lapis lazuli, jasper, rock crystal, lead-stone, granite, porphyry, and various marbles.

In many of the northern provinces coal is found in abundance. The common people generally use it pounded with water, and dried in the form of cakes.

Pekin is supplied from high mountains in the vicinity, and the mines seem inexhaustible, though the coal be in general use.

Tutenag, which is a native mixture of zinc and iron, seems to be a peculiar product of China, and in the province of Houquang there was a mine which yielded many hundred weight in the course of a few days.

CHINESE ISLANDS.

Numerous isles are scattered along the southern and eastern coast of China, the largest being those of Taiwan, also called Formosa, and that of Hainan. Formosa is a recent acquisition of the Chinese in the latter end of the seventeenth century; the natives being, by the Chinese accounts, little better than savages.

The southern part of Hainan is mountainous, but the northern more level and productive of rice. In the centre there are mines of gold; and on the shores are found small blue fishes, which the Chinese esteem more than those which we call gold and silver fish.

The isles of Leoo-keoo, between Formosa and Japan, constitute a little civilized kingdom tributary to China. These isles were discovered by the Chinese in the seventh century; but it was not till the fourteenth that they became tributary to China.

CHINESE TATARY.

THIS extensive region might more properly be called Mongolia, as the greater number of tribes are Monguls ; or the western part might be styled Tatar, the middle Mongolia, and the eastern Mandshuria. The two latter are the objects of the present description ; as that of Independent Tatar will be found after the account of Persia with which it has (as now limited) in all ages been connected.

EXTENT. This wide and interesting portion of Asia, which has repeatedly sent forth its swarms to deluge the arts and civilization of Europe, extends from the 72d° of longitude east from Greenwich to the 145th°, a space of not less than 73° of longitude, which at the medial latitude of 45°, will yield about 3100 geographical miles. The breadth from the northern frontier of Tibet to the Russian confines is about 18°, or 1080 geographical miles.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of this part of Asia appears to have been indigenal, so far as the most ancient records extend. Part of the west was held by the Scythæ of antiquity, seemingly a Gothic race, who were subdued or expelled by the Tatars or Huns from the east, pressed on the other side by the Monguls. Beyond the latter were the Mandshurs, who, though inferior to the Monguls in power, yet retained their ancient possessions, and in the seventeenth century conquered China.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The chief historical epochs of the region we now contemplate may perhaps be more certainly traced in the Chinese annals, than in any other documents. The first appearance of the Huns or Tatars may be observed in the pages of Roman history. The annals of the Monguls, the most important nation, faintly

illuminate the pages of Abulgasi, whence it would appear that prior to Zingis there was only one celebrated chan named Oguz, who seems to have flourished about the 130th year of the Christian æra. The reigns of Zingis and Timur are sufficiently known in general history; but the divisions of their conquests, and the dissensions of their successors, have now almost annihilated the power of the Monguls, and the terror of their arms.

RELIGION. The religion most universally diffused in this part of Asia is what has been called Shamanism, or the belief in a supreme author of nature, who governs the universe by the agency of numerous inferior spirits of great power.

GOVERNMENT. The government at present is conducted by princes who pay homage to the Chinese empire, and receive Chinese titles of honour; but many of the ancient forms are yet retained. Though writing be not unknown among the Monguls, yet the laws appear to be chiefly traditional.

POPULATION. Of the population of these regions it is difficult to form any precise ideas; but perhaps it does not exceed six millions.

DIVISIONS. The country of the Mandshurs is by the Chinese divided into three great governments. 1. That of Chinyang: the chief town is Chinyang, still a considerable place, with a mausoleum of Kunchi, regarded as the conqueror of China, and the founder of the reigning family. 2. The government of Kiren-Oula, which extends far to the N. E. Kirem the capital stands on the river Songari, and was the residence of the Mandshur general who acted as viceroy. 3. The government of Tsitchicar, so called from a town recently founded on the Nonni Oula where a Chinese garrison is stationed.

In this division may also be mentioned Corea, which has for many centuries acknowledged the authority of China, and which boasts a considerable population.

To the west are various tribes of Monguls, whose country may be considered under three divisions. 1. That part called Gete which some regard as the country of the ancient Massagetæ. 2. Little Bucharìa, so called to distinguish it from the Greater Bucharìa; the people of Little Bucharìa are an industrious race of a distinct origin, who are little mingled with their Kalmuk or Mongul lords. 3.

The countries of Turfan to the north of the lake called Lok Nor, and that of Chamil or Hami to the east, regions little known, and surrounded with wide deserts.

ARMY. A numerous horde of barbarians, unskilled in modern tactics.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE. The manners and customs, language and literature of the Monguls have been already briefly described in the account of Asiatic Russia.

CITIES AND TOWNS. This extensive portion of Asia contains several cities and towns, generally constructed of wood, and of little antiquity or duration. They are mostly inconsiderable, and too uninteresting to an American reader to be enumerated.

TRADE. The principal trade of the Mandshur country consists in ginseng and pearls, found in many rivers which fall into the Amur. Excellent horses may also be classed among the exports. Cashgar was formerly celebrated for musk and gold. Corea also produces gold, silver, iron, beautiful yellow varnish, and white paper, ginseng, with small horses about three feet high, furs, and fossil salt. The other towns are rather stations for merchants than seats of commerce.

CLIMATE, &c. Though the parallel of central Asia correspond with that of France, and part of Spain, yet the heights and snows of the mountainous ridges occasion a degree and continuance of cold little to be expected from other circumstances.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. The appearance of this extensive region is diversified with all the grand features of nature, extensive chains of mountains, large rivers, and lakes. But the most singular feature is that vast elevated plain, supported like a table, by surrounding mountains. This prodigious plain, the most elevated continuous region on the globe, is intersected by some chains of mountains, and by the vast desert of Cobi or Shamo. Destitute of plants and water, it is dangerous for horses, but is safely passed with camels. This desert extends from about the 80th° of E. longitude from Greenwich to about the 110th°, being 30° of longitude, which in the latitude of 40°, may be 1380 geographical miles.

AGRICULTURE. Among the southern Mandshurs, and the people of Little Bucharia, agriculture is not wholly

neglected, nor is wheat an unknown harvest. The soil of so extensive a portion of the earth may be supposed to be infinitely various; but the predominating substance is black sand.

RIVERS. There are many considerable rivers that pervade central Asia, but the most important is that called by the Russians the Amur, which is deservedly classed among the largest rivers; rising near the Yablonoi mountains, and pursuing an easterly course of about 1850 British miles.

LAKES. Some of the lakes are of great extent, as those of Balkash or Tengis, and Zaizan, each about 150 miles in length. Next is the Koko Nor, by some called Hoho Nor, or the blue lake, which gives name to a tribe of the Monguls.

MOUNTAINS. On the west the great chain called Imaus by the ancients, the Belur Tag, or Dark Mountains of the natives, runs from north to south.

In the eastern country of the Mandshurs the ridges of mountains are laid down in the same direction.

Of the northern mountains of Tibet, and the sources of the Ganges, our knowledge remains imperfect. Still fainter light falls on the ridges which run in an easterly and westerly direction to the north of the great desert.

There are some forests near the rivers; but in general the extreme elevation and sandy soil of central Asia render trees almost as rare as in the deserts of Africa.

ANIMALS. The zoology of this wide portion of the globe would supply an infinite theme, in which the camel of the desert might appear with the rock goat of the Alps, and the tiger with the ermine. The wild horse, and the wild ass, and a peculiar species of cattle which grunt like swine, are among the most remarkable singularities. The wild horse is generally of a mouse colour, and small, with long sharp ears.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of central Asia has been little explored.

ISLAND OF SAGALIAN, OR TCHOKA.

Till this large island was explored by the unfortunate navigator La Perouse, it was supposed to be only a small

isle at the mouth of the Amur. It is now found to extend from the 46th^o of latitude to the 54th^o, or not less than 480 geographical miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, and is the most important portion of that navigator's voyage. The natives seem to approach to the Tataric form; their dress is a loose robe of skins, or quilted nankeen, with a girdle. Their huts, or cabins, are of timber, thatched with grass, with a fireplace in the centre. The people are highly praised by La Perouse as a mild and intelligent race.

TIBET.

THE name of *Tibet*, which is probably Hindoo or Persian, is in the country itself, and in Bengal, pronounced *Tibbet* or *Tibt*. But the native appellation is *Puë* or *Puë Koachim*, said to be derived from *Puë*, signifying northern, and *Koachim*, snow, that is the snowy region of the north.

EXTENT. According to the most recent maps, Tibet extends from about the 75th to the 101st degree of longitude, which in the latitude of 30° may be about 1350 geographical miles. The breadth may be regarded as extending from the 27th to the 35th degree of latitude, or about 480 geographical miles. The original population has not been accurately examined; but it may perhaps be concluded that they are derived from the Bootanese, a race of men which approaches the Tataric, though they cannot be regarded as Mandshurs, Monguls, or Tatars proper.

PROVINCES. Tibet is divided into three parts, Upper, Middle, and Lower. Upper Tibet chiefly comprises the province of Nagari, full of horrible rocks, and mountains covered with eternal snow. Middle Tibet contains the provinces of Shang, Ou, and Kiang: while the provinces of Lower Tibet are Takbo, Congbo, and Kahang.

To these must be added the wide region of Amdoa, if it be not the same with Kahang, but it seems more probably to embrace the confines towards China, as the natives are remarkably ingenious, and speak the Chinese language. The N. E. part was, with the Chinese province of Shensi, before the great wall was extended in this quarter, the celebrated Tangut of oriental history and geography. On the western side, high mountains, covered with perpetual snow, and with all the terrible avalanches, and other features of the Swiss Alps, have in all ages prevented the Per-

sians and the conquerors of Bucharia from invading this country, and have also prevented travellers from penetrating into that quarter of the globe.

About 1715 the emperor of China being desirous to obtain a map of Tibet, two Lamas were sent who had studied geometry in a mathematical academy. These lamas drew a map from Sining, in the province of Shensi, to the sources of the Ganges; which was afterwards examined by the Jesuits, and improved by them, so far as their materials would admit.

But the geography of Asia cannot be said to be complete till we have new and correct maps of the central parts, particularly of Tibet, which may be called the heart of Asia. The sources of the Ganges and Indus, the Sampoo, and all the prodigious and fertile streams of exterior India, and of China, belong to this interesting region.

RELIGION. The religion of Tibet seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos. It bears a very close affinity with the religion of Brahma in many important particulars, but differs materially in its ritual, or ceremonial worship. Tibetans assemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform their religious service, which they chaunt in alternate recitative and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments.

GOVERNMENT. The ruling government is the spiritual, though the lama was accustomed to appoint a *tipa*, or secular regent, a right which has probably passed to the Chinese emperor. The laws must, like the religion, bear some affinity to that of the Hindoos.

POPULATION. No estimate of the population of Tibet seems to have been attempted; but as the country may be said to be wholly mountainous, and the climate excessively cold, even under the 27th degree of latitude, (the influence of mountains being far superior to that of imaginary zones,) the people are thinly scattered, and the number of males far exceeds that of females, and of course the latter are indulged in a plurality of husbands. There is every reason to suppose the population is inconsiderable.

REVENUES. The revenues of the lama, and of the secular princes, seem to be trifling; nor can Tibet ever aspire to any political importance. In a commercial point of view, friendship and free intercourse with Tibet might

open new advantages to the British settlements in Bengal; and in this design repeated envoys to the lama were sent by Mr. Hastings, a governor who possessed the most enlarged and enlightened mind, and an active attention to the interests of his country.

CHARACTER, &c. Mr. Turner represents the character of the Tibetans as extremely gentle and amiable. The men are generally stout, with something of the Tataric features, and the women of a ruddy brown complexion, heightened like the fruits by the proximity of the sun, while the mountain breezes bestow health and vigour.

“The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate in Tibet. Their courtships are carried on with little art, and quickly brought to a conclusion. The priests of Tibet, who shun the society of women, have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties, which, it seems, is formed indissolubly for life.”

Such is the respect paid to the lama, that his body is preserved entire in a shrine; while those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. But in general the dead bodies are exposed to the beasts and birds of prey, in walled areas; and an annual festival is held, as in Bengal and China, in honour of the dead.

LANGUAGE. The origins of the Tibetan speech have not been properly investigated. The literature is chiefly of the religious kind, the books being sometimes printed with blocks of wood, on narrow slips of thin paper, fabricated from the fibrous root of a small shrub. In this practice they resemble the Chinese; while the Hindoos engrave their works with a steel stylus upon the recent leaves of the palmyra tree, (*borassus flabelliformis*,) affording a fibrous substance, which seems indestructible by vermin. The writing runs from the left to the right, as in the languages of Europe.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Of the cities and towns of Tibet little is known. The capital is Lassa.

This capital is situated in a spacious plain, being a small city, but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty. The noted mountain of Putela, on which stands the palace of the Lama, is about seven miles to the east of the city.

EDIFICES. Among the edifices, the monasteries may be first mentioned. Mr. Turner describes that of Teshoo Loomboo, as containing three or four hundred houses, inhabited by monks, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff. The buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories in height, with flat roofs, and parapets composed of heath and brushwood. Some of the palaces and fortresses are described and delineated by Mr. Turner; and the architecture seems respectable. The roads amidst the rocky mountains resemble those of Swisserland, and are particularly dangerous after rain.

MANUFACTURES, &c. The chief manufactures of Tibet seem to be shawls, and some woollen cloths; but there is a general want of industry; and the fine undermost hair of the goats, from which shawls are manufactured, is chiefly sent to Cashmir. The principal exports are to China, consisting of gold dust, diamonds, pearls, lamb skins, some musk, and woollen cloths. Many of the Chinese imports are manufactured articles. To Nipal, Tibet sends rock salt, tincal, or crude borax, and gold dust; receiving in return base silver coin, copper, rice, and coarse cotton cloths. Through Nipal is also carried on the chief trade with Bengal, in gold dust, tincal, and musk. The returns are broad cloth, spices, trinkets, emeralds, sapphires, lazulite, jet, amber, &c.

CLIMATE. “In the temperature of the seasons in Tibet a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. The spring is marked, from March to May, by a variable atmosphere; by heat, thunder storms, and occasionally with refreshing showers. From June to September is the season of humidity, when heavy and continued rains fill the rivers to their brim, which run off from hence with rapidity to assist in inundating Bengal. From October to March a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured either by fogs or clouds. For three months of this season a degree of cold is felt, far greater perhaps than is known to prevail in Europe.”

SOIL AND CULTIVATION. From the same intelligent traveller we learn that Bootan, with all its confused and shapeless mountains, is covered with eternal verdure, and abounds in forests of large and lofty trees. The sides of the mountains are improved by the hand of industry,

and crowned with orchards, fields, and villages. Tibet Proper, on the contrary, exhibits only low, rocky hills, without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains of an aspect equally stern. Yet Tibet produces great abundance and variety of wild fowl and game; with numerous flocks of sheep and goats, and herds of cattle, and is infested by many beasts of prey.

The nature of the soil here prohibits the progress of agriculture. The vales are commonly laid under water on the approach of winter: in the spring they are ploughed and sown, while frequent showers, and a powerful sun, contribute speedily to mature the crops. The autumn being clear and tranquil, the harvest is long left to dry on the ground, and when sufficiently hardened is trod out by cattle. The course of cultivation is wheat, peas, and barley; rice being confined to a more southern soil.

RIVERS. The chief river of Tibet is, beyond all comparison, the Sampoo or Berhanpootar, which rising in the western region, from the same lofty mountains that give source to the Ganges, proceeds first in an E. and S. E. direction; then it bends S. W. and flows into the estuary of the Ganges, after a farther course of about 400 British miles.

Many other considerable rivers are believed to derive their sources from the mountains of Tibet, which may be styled the Alps of Asia.

LAKES. These Alpine regions contain, as usual, many lakes, the most considerable being represented under the name of Terkiri, about 30 British miles in length, and 25 broad. So great is the severity of the cold, that even the smaller lakes in the south of Tibet Proper are in the winter frozen to a great depth.

MOUNTAINS. The vast ranges of Tibetan mountains have already been repeatedly mentioned; but there is no accurate geographical delineation of their course and extent.

From these great ranges many branches extend N. and S. as in the Alps, and their names may perhaps be traced, but with little accuracy, in the general map of Tibet, and atlas of the provinces.

ANIMALS. In Bootan few wild animals are observable, except monkeys; but Tibet abounds with game of various descriptions. The horses are of a small size, but

spirited. The cattle are also diminutive. The flocks of sheep are numerous, commonly small, with black heads and legs; the wool soft, and the mutton excellent. It is a peculiarity of the country that the latter food is generally eaten raw. When dried in the frosty air it is not disagreeable in this state, to an European palate.

The goats are numerous and celebrated for producing a fine hair, which is manufactured into shawls, and which lies beneath the exterior coarse coat. Nor must the singular breed of cattle be forgotten, called Yak by the Tatars, covered with thick long hair; the tail being peculiarly flowing and glossy, and an article of luxury in the east, where it is used to drive away the flies, and sometimes dried for ornaments.

The musk deer delights in intense cold. The musk, which is only found in the male, is formed in a little tumour at the navel; and is the genuine and authentic article so styled, being commonly black, and divided by thin cuticles.

MINERALS. The mineralogy is best known from the account appended to Mr. Turner's Journey in 1783, from which it appears that Bootan does not probably contain any metal except iron; and a small portion of copper; while Tibet Proper, on the contrary, seems to abound with rich minerals. Gold is found in great quantities, sometimes in the form of dust, in the beds of rivers, sometimes in large masses and irregular veins. There is a lead mine, two days journey from Teshoo Lumboo. Cinnabar, rich in quicksilver, is also found; and there are strong indications of copper.

The most peculiar product of Tibet is tincal, or crude borax, found in a lake about fifteen days journey from Teshoo Lumboo. The tincal is deposited or formed in the bed of the lake; and those who go to collect it dig it up in large masses, which they afterwards break into small pieces for the convenience of carriage, exposing it to the air to dry. It is used in Tibet for soldering, and to promote the fusion of gold and silver. Rock salt is universally used for all domestic purposes in Tibet, Bootan and Nipal.

JAPAN.

THE kingdom, or, as it is by some styled, the empire of Japan, has, by most geographers, been classed among the Asiatic isles, and may in some measure be compared with Great Britain and Ireland, forming a grand insular power near the eastern extremity of Asia, like that of the British isles near the western extremity of Europe.

Marco Polo, the father of modern Asiatic geography, mentions Japan by the name of Zipangri or Zipangu. The inhabitants themselves call it Nipon or Nifon, and the Chinese Sippon and Jepuen.

EXTENT. This empire extends from the 30th to the 41st degree of N. latitude; and according to the most recent maps, from the 131st to the 142d degree of E. longitude from Greenwich. We shall pass over many smaller isles, as by far the most important is that of Nipon. The grand isle of Nipon is in length from S. W. to N. E. not less than 750 British miles; but is so narrow in proportion, that the medial breadth cannot be assumed above 80, though in two projecting parts it may double that number. These islands are divided into provinces and districts, as usual in the most civilized countries.

To the N. of Nipon is another large isle, that of Jesso, or Chicha, which having received some Japanese colonies, is generally regarded as subject to Japan; but being inhabited by a savage people, is rather considered as a foreign conquest than as a part of this civilized empire.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The Japanese seem to be a kindred race with the Chinese, though, according to Kämpfer, the languages be radically distinct. But if com-

pared with that of Corea, the nearest land, and the latter with the Chinese, perhaps a gradation might be observable.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The history of their own country is universally studied by the Japanese; and Kæmpfer has produced an elaborate abstract, divided into three epochs, the fabulous, the doubtful, and the certain. Passing by the two first, we shall take notice of the last period.

The third, or certain period, begins with the hereditary succession of the ecclesiastical emperors, styled Dire, from the year 660 before the Christian era, to the year of Christ, 1585, during which 107 princes of the same lineage governed Japan. At the last period the secular princes assumed the supreme authority. In general the reigns are pacific; though at very distant intervals the Mandshurs and Coreans occasionally invaded Japan, but were always defeated by the valour of the inhabitants. In 1585 the generals of the crown, or secular emperors, who were also hereditary, assumed the supreme power; the Dairis being afterwards confined, and strictly guarded, that they might not reassume their ancient authority.

ANTIQUITIES. The Europeans have not explored this country enough to be acquainted with its antiquities, if it really possesses any worthy of notice.

RELIGION. The established religion of Japan is a polytheism, joined with the acknowledgment of a supreme creator. There are two principal sects, that of Sinto and that of Budsdo. The first acknowledge a supreme being, far superior to the little claims and worship of man, whence they adore the inferior deities as mediators, the idea of a mediator being interwoven in almost every form of religion. They abstain from animal food, detest bloodshed, and will not touch any dead body.

The priests are either secular or monastic; the latter alone being entrusted with the mysteries. The festivals and modes of worship are cheerful, and even gay; for they regard the gods as beings who solely delight in dispensing happiness. Besides the first day of the year, and the three or four other grand festivals, the first day of the month is always kept as a holiday. There are several orders of monks and nuns, as in the Roman Catholic system.

They believe in the metempsychosis or transmigration of souls, the wicked being supposed to migrate into the bodies of animals, till they have undergone a due purgation.

Soon after the discovery of this country by the Portuguese, jesuitic missionaries arrived in 1549; and their successors continued to diffuse their doctrine till 1638, when 37,000 Christians were massacred. Not contented with their station, that intriguing order endeavoured to introduce themselves into the governing councils of the nation. Since that memorable epoch Christianity has been held in supreme detestation; and the cross, with its other symbols, are annually trampled under foot; but it is a fable that the Dutch are constrained to join in this ceremony.

GOVERNMENT. The Kubo, or secular emperor, is now hereditary and sole monarch of the country. Yet occasionally his authority has been controverted; and Japan has been ravaged by many civil wars. The ecclesiastical dignities were of six orders, some belonging to particular offices, others merely honorary. The secular prince is accustomed to confer, with the consent of the dairi, two honorary ranks, equivalent to our noblemen and knights. The ecclesiastical court is chiefly occupied with literary pursuits, the dairi residing at Miaco; and his court remains though not in its former splendour.

The government of each province is intrusted to a resident prince, who is strictly responsible for his administration, his family remaining at the emperor's court as hostages; and he is himself obliged to make an annual appearance, the journey being performed with great pomp, and accompanied with valuable presents. The emperor, as in the feudal times of Europe, derives his chief revenue from his own estate, consisting of five inferior provinces, and some detached towns. Each Prince enjoys the revenues of his fief or government, with which he supports his court and military force, repairs the roads and defrays every civil expense.

The superiority of the laws of Japan over those of Europe, has been loudly proclaimed by Kæmpfer. The parties themselves appear, and the case is determined without delay. Thunberg informs us that the laws are few, but rigidly enforced, without regard to persons, partiality, or violence. Most crimes are punished with death; but the sentence must be signed by the privy council at Jedo. Parents and relations are made answerable for the crimes of those whose moral education they ought to have superintended. The police is excellent, there not only being a

chief magistrate of each town, but a commissary of each street, elected by the inhabitants to watch over property and tranquillity. Two inhabitants in their turn nightly patrol the street to guard against fire.

The best proof that the laws are salutary is that few crimes are committed, and few punishments are inflicted. The brief code, according to Thunberg, is posted up in every town and village, in large letters, on a spot surrounded with rails.

POPULATION. All travellers agree that the population is surprising, although a great part of the country be mountainous. Thunberg observes that the capital Jedo, is said to be 63 British miles in circumference, and at any rate rivals Peking in size. Kämpfer says that the number of people daily travelling on the highways is inconceivable, and the *tokaido*, the chief of the seven great roads, is sometimes more crowded than the most frequented streets of European capitals. Perhaps a pretty safe estimate may be formed of the population of Japan by supposing it to equal that of China; and the former country being about one tenth part the size of the latter, the population will of course be about 30,000,000.

ARMY, &c. The army has been estimated by Varenus at more than half a million; and the character of the people is singularly brave and resolute. The navy, like that of the other oriental powers, is beneath notice. The Japanese vessels are open at the stern, so that they cannot bear a boisterous sea.

REVENUES. The revenues of this empire are stated by Varenus at 2834 tons of gold, on the Flemish mode of computation; and taking the ton at only 10,000*l.* sterling, the amount would be 28,340,000*l.* sterling, besides the provinces and cities which are immediately subject to the emperor. The emperor besides the large revenues of his provinces, has a considerable treasure in gold and silver, disposed in chests of 1000 taels, or thayls, each being nearly in value to a Dutch rix dollar, or about four shillings and four pence English money.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. "The people of this nation are well made, active, free and easy in their motions, with stout limbs, although their strength is not to be compared to that of the northern inhabitants of Europe. They are of a yellowish colour all over, sometimes bordering on

brown, and sometimes on white. Ladies of distinction, who seldom go out in the open air without being covered, are perfectly white. It is by their eyes, that, like the Chinese, these people are distinguishable. These organs have not that rotundity which those of other nations exhibit; but are oblong, small, and are sunk deeper in the head, in consequence of which these people have almost the appearance of being pink-eyed. Their heads are in general large, and their necks short; their hair black, thick, and shining, from the use they make of oils. Their noses, though not flat, are yet rather thick and short."

This highly civilized people are supposed to be free from the mean tricks of the maritime Chinese. They use great varieties of food and sauces. The master or mistress of the house is not harassed with the trouble of carving, the meat being previously cut into small pieces, served up in basons of porcelain, or japanned wood. The general drink is sacki, or beer made of rice; which last article also supplies the place of bread. They use many kinds of vegetables and fruits. The use of tea is also universal; but wine and spiritous liquors are unknown. The use of tobacco seems to have been introduced by the Portuguese; and the practice of smoking has become general.

The houses of the Japanese are of wood, coloured white, so as to resemble stone: and though roomy and commodious, never exceed two stories in height, the upper serving for lofts and garrets, and seldom being occupied. Each house forms but one room, which may be divided into apartments at pleasure, by moveable partitions sliding in grooves. They use neither chairs nor tables, sitting on straw mats, the meal being served apart to each on a small square wooden salver.

The dress consists of trowsers: and what we call night gowns, or loose robes of silk or cotton, are universally worn by both sexes. These are fastened by a girdle; the number being increased according to the coldness of the weather. Stockings are not used; and the shoes are commonly of rice straw. The men shave the head from the forehead to the nape, but the hair on the sides is turned up and fastened at the crown of the head: conical hats made of grass are worn on journeys, but the fashion of wearing the hair forms the common economical covering of the head.

LANGUAGE. Thunberg has published a curious vocabulary of the Japanese language, which seems indeed to have little connexion with the monosyllabic speech of the Chinese. There are also dictionaries drawn up by the Jesuits.

LITERATURE. In the sciences and literature the Japanese yield to few of the oriental nations. This sensible people study house-keeping, or domestic economy, as an indispensable science; and next to this every Japanese is versed in the history of his country. Astronomy is cultivated, but has not arrived at much perfection. They survey with tolerable accuracy; and their maps are as exact as their imperfect instruments will permit. The art of printing is ancient, but they use blocks, not moveable types, and only impress one side of the paper. Some of their arts and manufactures even surpass those of Europe. There are excellent workmen in iron and copper; and to no eastern country do they yield in manufactures of silk and cotton; while in varnishing wood they are well known to have no equals. Glass is also common; and they even form telescopes. The porcelain is deemed superior to that of China. Their swords display incomparable skill; and many varieties of paper are prepared from the bark of a species of mulberry tree.

There are many schools in which the children are taught to read and write; their education being accomplished without the degradation of personal chastisement, while courage is instilled by the repetition of songs in praise of deceased heroes.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The capital city of the Japanese empire is Jedo, centrically situated on a bay in the S. E. side of the chief island Nipon. The houses never exceed two stories, with numerous shops towards the streets. The harbour is so shallow that an European ship would be obliged to anchor at the distance of five leagues. A fire happened in this city in the year 1772, which is said to have consumed six leagues in length, and three in breadth: and earthquakes are here familiar as in other regions of Japan. The emperor's palace is surrounded with stone walls, and ditches with draw bridges, forming of itself a considerable town, said to be five leagues in circumference.

Miaco, the spiritual capital, and second city of the empire is placed in an inland situation about 160 miles S. W. from Jedo, on a level plain. Yet it is the first commercial city, and is celebrated for the principal manufactures. It is also the seat of the imperial mint: and the Dairi's court being literary, all books are printed here. Kämpfer informs us, that upon an enumeration taken in 1674, the inhabitants were found to amount to 405,642, of whom were males 182,070; and 223,572 females, without including the numerous attendants of the Dairi.

EDIFICES. The imperial palace, like those of the Chinese, consists of many dwellings, occupying an immense space. The saloon of the hundred mats is 600 feet in length by 300 in breadth. There is a high square tower which consists of several stages richly decorated; and most of the roofs are ornamented with golden dragons. The pillars and ceilings are of cedar, camphor, and other precious woods; but the only furniture consists of white mats, fringed with gold. As might be expected among so industrious a people, the roads seem to be maintained in excellent order.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The inland commerce is very considerable, being free and exempted from imposts. The harbours are crowded with large and small vessels; the high roads with various goods; and the shops well replenished. Large fairs are also held in different places, to which there is a great concourse of people. The trade with China is the most important, consisting of raw silk, sugar, turpentine, drugs, &c. while the exports are copper in bars, lackered ware, &c. The Japanese coins are of remarkable form, the gold being called Kobangs. The silver called Kodama sometimes represents Daikok, the god of riches, sitting upon two barrels of rice, with a hammer in his right hand, and a sack at his left.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The heat of summer is in Japan extremely violent, and would be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea breezes. Equally severe is the cold in winter, when the wind blows from the north or north-east. There are abundant falls of rain, especially in the rainy months, which begin at midsummer, and this is the chief cause of the fertility of Japan.

Thunder is not unfrequent; and tempests, hurricanes, and earthquakes are very common. The greatest degree

of heat, at Nagasaki was 98° , in the month of August ; and the severest cold in January 35° .

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. Though there be some plains of considerable extent, yet the country in general consists of mountains, hills, and valleys, the coast being mostly rocky and precipitous, and invested with a turbulent sea. The soil in itself may be said to be rather barren ; but the prolific showers conspire with labour and manure to overcome even this obstacle. Agriculture is a science in the highest estimation with this sensible people, so that except the most barren and untractable mountains, the earth is universally cultivated ; and even most of the mountains and hills. If any portion be found uncultivated it may be seized by a more industrious neighbour. Manure is laid upon the plants, when they have attained the height of about six inches, so that they instantly receive the whole benefit, and weeding is carried to the utmost degree of nicety.

Rice is the chief grain ; buck-wheat, rye, barley, and wheat being little used. The sweet potatoe is abundant ; with several sorts of beans and peas, turnips, cabbages, &c. The rice is sown in April, and gathered in November : in which last month the wheat is sown, and reaped in June. The barley also stands the winter. From the seed of a kind of cabbage lamp-oil is expressed ; and several plants are cultivated for dying ; there are also cotton shrubs, and mulberry trees, which last feed abundance of silk worms. The varnish and camphor trees, the vine, the cedar, the tea tree, and the bamboo reed, not only grow wild, but are planted for numerous uses.

RIVERS. The rivers of Nipon have not been delineated with much care. Among the few named are the Nogafa, the Jedogawa, and the Ojingava ; of which we know little more than the names ; the last is one of the largest and most dangerous in the country, though not subject, like the others, to swell during rains.

LAKES. One of the chief lakes seems to be that of Oitz, which emits two rivers, one towards Miaco, the other towards Osaka, and it is said to be fifty Japanese leagues in length, each about an hour's journey on horse-back ; but the breadth is inconsiderable.

MOUNTAINS. The principal Japanese mountain is that of Fusi, covered with snow almost throughout the

year. The Fakonie mountains are in the same quarter, surrounding a small lake of the same name.

Near the lake of Oitz is the delightful mountain of Jesan ; which is esteemed sacred, and is said to present not less than 3000 temples.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The ginger, the soy-bean, black pepper, sugar, cotton, and indigo, though perhaps natives of the more southern regions of Asia, are cultivated here with great success, and in vast abundance. The Indian laurel and the camphor tree are found in the high central parts of Japan, as is also the rhus vernix, from the bark of which exudes a gum resin that is supposed to be the basis of the exquisitely beautiful and inimitable black varnish. Besides the common sweet or China orange, another species, the *citrus japonica*, is found wild. Two kinds of mulberry are met with, both in an indigenous and cultivated state, the one valuable as the favourite food of the silk worm, the other esteemed for the white fibres of its inner bark, which are manufactured into paper. The larch, the cypress, and weeping willow, the opium, poppy, white lily, and jalap, are found here. The trumpet-flower (*bignonia catalpa*) is common to this part of Asia and Peru ; in which circumstance it resembles the vanilla, whose berries form an article of commerce, being largely used in the preparation of chocolate. The tallow tree, the plantain, the cocoa-nut tree, and two other palms, adorn the wood-land tracts, especially near the sea-shore, by the variety of their growth and foliage.

Neither sheep nor goats are found in the whole empire of Japan ; the latter being deemed mischievous to cultivation, while the abundance of cotton recompenses the want of wool. Swine are also deemed pernicious to agriculture ; and only a few appear in the neighbourhood of Nagasaki. The number of horses in the empire were computed by Thunberg as only equal to those of a single Swedish town. Still fewer cattle are seen ; as the Japanese neither use their flesh nor their milk, but employ them only in ploughing or drawing carts. The food consists almost entirely of fish and fowl, with vegetables. Hens and common ducks are domesticated, chiefly on account of their eggs. A few dogs are kept from motives of superstition ; and the cats are favourites of the ladies.

There are some wolves and foxes : these last being universally detested, and considered as demons incarnate.

MINERALS. “ That the precious metals, gold and silver, are to be found in abundance in the empire of Japan has been well known, both to the Portuguese, who formerly exported whole ship loads of them, and to the Dutch in former times. Gold is found in several parts, and perhaps Japan may in this respect contest the palm with the richest country in the world : but in order that this metal may not lose its value, by becoming too plentiful, it is prohibited to dig more than a certain stated quantity ; not to mention that no metallic mine, of any kind whatever, can be opened and wrought without the emperor’s express permission.

“ Copper is quite common in every part of the empire, and is richly impregnated with gold, constituting the main source of the wealth of many provinces. It was not only formerly exported in amazing quantities, but still continues to be exported, both by the Dutch and Chinese merchants.

“ Iron seems to be scarcer than any other metal in this country.

“ Brimstone is found in great abundance in Japan. Pit-coal is likewise to be met with in the northern provinces.”

THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

COMPRISING THE
KINGDOMS OF AVA AND PEGU.

THE Birman empire derives its name from the Bir-mahs, who have been long known as a warlike nation in the region formerly styled INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES; the capital city of their kingdom being Ava or Awa. Pegu is by the natives styled Bagoo; being the country situated to the south of the former, and justly inferred to have been the Golden Chersonese of the ancients.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES. It is difficult to ascertain with precision the boundaries of the Birman empire. Mr. Symes informs us, that "it appears to include the space between the 9th and 26th degree of north latitude, and between the 92d and 107th degree of longitude east of Greenwich; about 1050 geographical miles in length, and 600 in medial breadth.

To the north the Birman empire is divided by mountains from Asam, a country little visited or known; and farther to the east it borders on Tibet and China. On the west a range of mountains and the little river Naaf divide the Birman possessions from the British dominions in Bengal; and the limit is continued by the sea. But the southern and eastern boundaries still remain obscure.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of this region can be only guessed at. It is probably a branch of the great Hindoo family.

HISTORY. The Birmans, a brave and warlike race formerly subject to the king of Pegu, became afterwards

masters of Ava, and caused a revolution in the former country about the middle of the sixteenth century, when they took Martaban.

They continued to exercise their supremacy over Pegu till about the year 1740, when a civil war arose, during which the Peguese in 1750 and 1751 gained several victories over the Birmans; and in 1752 Ava was besieged and taken.

When Binga Della, king of Pegu, had completed the conquest of Ava, he returned to his own country. All wore the aspect of tranquil submission, when Alompra, a Birman of low extraction, who was only the chief of a small village, with one hundred devoted followers, attacked a band of fifty Peguese, whom he put to the sword: he afterwards defeated a small force sent against him; and about the autumn of 1753, took possession of Ava, while the Peguese government seems to have been lost by mere infatuation. Alompra proceeding in his conquests, founded the town now well known by the name of Rangoon, which signifies "victory achieved." In 1756 he blockaded Syrian, which yielded to his arms; he next advanced against the city of Pegu, situated on an extensive plain, and then surrounded with no mean fortifications, while the stupendous pagoda of Shomadoo served as a citadel. This capital was invested in January 1757, and in about three months became a prey to the Birmans.

Alompra next determined to chastise the Siamese, for the encouragement they had given to his rebellious subjects, and ordered a fleet to sail to Merghi, a sea-port belonging to the Siamese, which was easily taken, and was followed by the conquest of Tanaserim a large and populous city.

The victor next advanced against the capital of Siam; but two days after the siege had commenced, Alompra was seized with a deadly disease, which saved the Siamese from destruction. He died within two days march of Martaban, about the 15th May, 1766, regretted by his people, who at once venerated him as their deliverer, and as a great and victorious monarch.

Shembuen, second son of Alompra, continued the war against Siam; and in 1766 two armies entered that country from the N. and S. and, being united, defeated the Siamese about seven days journey from their capital. After

a blockade of two months the city capitulated; a Siamese governor being appointed who swore allegiance to the Birman sovereignty, and engaged to pay an annual tribute.

The Chinese, apprehensive of the progress of these conquests, advanced an army from the province of Yunnan, but were completely defeated by the Birmans. The Siamese though vanquished remained unsubdued; and there is an inveterate enmity betwixt the nations, which will prevent either servitude or alliance. A Siamese prince assumed the monarchy, and in 1771, defeated the Birmans, while the arms of Shembuen were employed in the conquest of Cachar. He died at Ava in 1776, and was succeeded by his son Chenguza, whose tyrannical conduct occasioned a conspiracy in 1782, at the head of which was Shembuen Minderagee, the present monarch, younger brother of the deceased Shembuen.

Minderagee determined to pass the mountains of Anoupec, and subdue Aracan. This conquest was commenced in 1783, and was speedily effected.

The Birman arms were now once more turned against Siam, and in 1785 a fleet was sent to subdue the isle of Junkseilon. Meeting with a repulse, the Birman monarch left his capital at the head of 30,000 men, with a train of 20 field pieces; but was defeated by the king of Siam, who in his turn failed in an invasion of the Birman possessions to the south. In 1793 a treaty was ratified between the Birmans and Siamese, by which the latter ceded the western maritime towns as far S. as Merghi inclusive. But with this exception, and that of some northern provinces, the Siamese monarchy retains a considerable portion of its ancient fame. Hence it appears that the Birman empire can scarcely be computed to extend beyond the 102d degree of longitude, and that only in the part to the north of Siam.

RELIGION. The Birmans follow the worship of Hindostan. They believe in the transmigration of souls, after which the radically bad will be condemned to lasting punishment, while the good shall enjoy eternal happiness in the mountain Meru.

LAWS AND GOVERNMENT. “The Birman system of jurisprudence is replete with sound morality, and is distinguished above any other Hindoo commentary for perspicuity and good sense; it provides specifically for

almost every species of crime that can be committed, and adds a copious chapter of precedents and decisions, to guide the inexperienced in cases where there is doubt and difficulty. Like the immortal Menu, it tells the prince and the magistrate their duties in language austere, manly, and energetic."

Though the form of government be despotic, yet the king consults a council of ancient nobles. There are no hereditary dignities nor employments: on the demise of the possessor, they revert to the crown. Rank is also denoted by chains, with various divisions (3, 6, 9, or 12) and by the form and material of various articles in common use.

POPULATION. Colonel Symes states the population of the Birman dominions at 17,000,000, confessedly however the result of a very vague estimate.

ARMY AND NAVY. Every man in the empire is liable to military service, but the regular army is very inconsiderable. During war the viceroys raise one recruit from every two, three, or four houses, which otherwise pay a fine of about 40*l.* sterling. The family of the soldier is detained as hostages, and in case of cowardice or desertion suffer death; a truly tyrannic mode of securing allegiance. But the war boats form the chief military establishment, consisting of about 500, formed out of the solid trunk of the teak tree. They carry from 50 to 60 rowers; the prow being solid, with a flat surface, on which a piece of ordnance is mounted. Each rower is provided with a sword and lance, and there are 30 soldiers armed with muskets.

REVENUES. The revenue arises from one tenth of all produce, and of foreign goods imported: the amount is uncertain: but it is supposed that the monarch possesses immense treasures.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The general disposition of the Birmans is as strikingly contrasted with that of the Hindoos, as if they had been situated at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient; the unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most nations of the east to immure their women within the walls of an haram, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. Birman wives and daughters are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each

other, as the rules of European society admit; but in other respects women have just reason to complain of their treatment; they are considered as not belonging to the same scale of the nation as men, and are generally occupied in the labours of the loom. In war the men display the ferocity of savages, while in peace they can boast a considerable degree of gentleness and civilization. They are fond of poetry and music, and among their instruments is the heem, resembling the ancient pipe of Pan, formed of several reeds neatly joined together.

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE. The alphabet represents 33 simple sounds, and is written from left to right like the European. The Birman books are more neatly executed than those of the Hindoos, and in every *kioul* or monastery, there is a library or repository of books. Colonel Symes was surprised at the number contained in the royal library, in which the large chests amounted to about 100. The books were regularly classed, and the contents of each chest were written in gold letters on the lid.

CITIES. The new capital Ummerapoora, with its spires, turrets, and lofty obelisk, denoting the royal presence, seems to rise like Venice, from the waters, being placed between a lake on the S. E. and a large river with numerous isles on the N. W. The number and singularity of the boats moored in the lake, and the surrounding amphitheatre of lofty hills, conspire to render the scene grand and interesting. The fort is an exact square, with public granaries and store rooms; and there is a gilded temple at each corner, nearly 100 feet in height, but far inferior to others in the vicinity of the capital. In the centre of this fort stands the royal palace, with a wide court in front, beyond which is the Lotoo, or hall of council, supported by 77 pillars, disposed in eleven rows.

Ava, formerly the capital, is in a state of ruin. "The walls are now mouldering into decay, ivy clings to the sides, and bushes suffered to grow at the bottom, undermine the foundation, and have already caused large chasms in the different faces of the fort. The lines of the royal palace, of the Lotoo or grand council hall, the apartments of the women, and the spot on which the piasath or imperial spire had stood, together with all the other buildings exhibit a most striking picture of desolation and ruin.

Pegu, formerly the capital of a kingdom, is also in ruins; having been razed by Alompra, in 1757, the praws

or temples being spared; and of these the vast pyramid of Shomadoo has alone been revered, and kept in repair. It is seated on a double terrace, one side of the lower being 1391 feet, of the upper 684. The building is composed of brick and mortar, octagonal at the base, and spiral at the top, without any cavity or aperture. At the summit is a Tee, or sacred umbrella, of open iron work gilt, 56 feet in circumference; the height of the whole being 361 feet, and above the inner terrace 331 feet. Tradition bears that it was founded about 500 years before Christ.

One of the chief ports of the Birman empire, is Rangoon, which though, like the capital, of recent foundation, is supposed to contain 30,000 souls.

The grand river of Irrawady is bordered with numerous towns and villages. Persain, or Bassien, stands on its western branch. At a considerable distance to the north is Prome, celebrated as the scene of many long sieges and bloody conflicts. The number of inhabitants exceeds that of Rangoon.

EDIFICES. The most remarkable edifice is the Shomadoo before described. The Kioums are often of singularly rich and fantastic architecture. Colonel Symes has published a view of the grand hall of audience, perhaps as splendid an edifice as can well be executed in wood. His reception at the "golden feet," such is the term used for the imperial presence, was also remarkably grand, the pomp in some degree corresponding with that of the ancient Byzantine emperors.

MANUFACTURES. The Birmans excel in gilding, and several other ornamental manufactures. The edifices and barges are constructed with singular oriental taste and elegance.

A considerable trade is carried on between the capital and Yunan, the nearest province of China, consisting chiefly in cotton, with amber, ivory, precious stones, and betel nut; the returns being raw and wrought silks, velvets, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hard ware. European broad cloth and hard ware, coarse Bengal muslins, China ware, and glass, are imported by foreigners. The Birmans, like the Chinese, have no coin: but silver in bullion, and lead are current.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The vigorous health of the natives attests the salubrity of the climate, the seasons

being regular, and the extremes of heat and cold little known.

SOIL AND PRODUCE. “The soil of the southern provinces of the Birman empire is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Farther northward the country becomes irregular and mountainous; but the plains and valleys, particularly near the river, are exceedingly fruitful; they yield good wheat, and the various kinds of small grain which grow in Hindostan; as likewise legumes and most of the esculent vegetables of India. Sugar canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits in perfection, are all indigenous products of this favoured land.”

RIVERS. The geography of the rivers is yet imperfect. The chief river is the Irrawady, which, probably passes by Moguang to Bamoo, and thence by Ummerrapoor and Prome towards the sea, which it joins by many mouths, after a comparative course of near 1200 British miles.

MOUNTAINS. It is probable that the highest range of mountains is on the frontiers of Tibet, of which and the other ranges we have no satisfactory delineations.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. It is in those parts of the torrid zone that abound with water, and where, from the influence of the monsoons, the country is extensively flooded every year, that vegetation assumes a vigour and sublimity wholly inconceivable by the natives of more temperate climates: everlasting verdure, grace, and majesty of form, height and amplitude of growth, are the distinguishing attributes of their trees, compared with which the monarchs of our forests sink into vegetables of an inferior order: the same exuberance of nature is conspicuous in their shrubs and herbaceous plants, in their blossoms and their fruits, whose vivid brilliancy of colour, singularity of shape, aromatic fragrance, and exalted flavour, reduce to relative insignificance the puny produce of European summers.

Here rises, in proud magnificence the white sandal tree, whose fragrant wood is in high request through the whole east for the grateful odour of its smoke. The teak tree (*tectona theca*) is at least equal even to British oak as a durable material for ship building: the true jet black ebony

wood is the produce of one of the indigenous trees of Cochin China. The sycamore fig, the Indian fig, and the banyan tree itself a grove, by the breadth of their leaves and the luxuriance of their foliage, afford a most delicious shelter, impenetrable even by the meridian ardour of an Indian sun.

The ginger and cardamom, two pleasant aromatics, are found wild on the river sides; the turmeric, whose principal use in Europe is as a dying drug, is used by the natives to tinge and flavour their rice and other food: the leaves of the betel pepper, with the fruit of the black and long pepper, are the most favourite of their native spices, to which may also be added three or four kinds of capsicum. The cinnamon laurel grows in abundance, and sometimes accompanied by the nutmeg. The sugar cane, the bamboo, and the spikenard, are found throughout the whole country; as are the sweet potatoe, mad apple and love apple, gourds, melons, water melons, and a profusion of other esculent plants; the plantain, the mango and pine apple, the cocoa nut, and sago palm.

The animals in general correspond with those of Hindostan. Elephants principally abound in Pegu. The horses are small but spirited. A kind of wild fowl called the henza, and by the Hindoos the braminy goose, has been adopted as the symbol of the empire, like the Roman eagle.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of this region, the Golden Chersonese of the ancients, is opulent, and some products rather singular. The rivers of Pegu still continue to devolve particles of gold; and their sands must in ancient times have been yet more prolific of that precious metal; as is evinced by the practice of gilding the roofs and spires of temples and palaces, and this splendid appearance might naturally give rise to the classical appellation of the country. Mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires are at present open on a mountain called Woobolootaun, near the river Keen Duem. Amber also, extremely pure and pellucid, is dug up in large quantities.

MALAYA, OR MALACCA.

THE peninsula appended to the Birman territories on the south is styled Malaya or Malacca.

The Portuguese are regarded as the first discoverers of Malacca in 1509, to which they were led by the vain idea of finding the golden Chersonese of the ancients. In 1511 they conquered the peninsula, and held it till 1641, when it was seized by the Dutch.

The modern limits are not strictly defined; but Malacca is about 8°, or 560 British miles in length, by about 150 miles of medial breadth, a territory sufficiently ample for a powerful monarchy, had its native productions corresponded with its extent.

LANGUAGE. The Malayan language has been called the Italian of the east, from the melody of frequent vowels and liquids.

The Arabic character is made use of. They write on paper, using ink of their own composition, and pens made of the twigs of a tree.

PRODUCTS. The indolence of the inhabitants has prevented the country from being explored; but it produces pepper, and other spices, with some precious gums and woods. The wild elephants supply abundance of ivory; but the tin, the only mineral mentioned, may perhaps be the produce of Banka.

The city of Malacca, which seems to have been founded by Mahometans in the thirteenth century, in the last century was supposed to contain 12,000 inhabitants, of which however only 3000 dwelled within the walls. Not above 300 were native Portuguese, the others being a mixed race of Mahometan Malays, accounted among the chief merchants of the east.

In general the Malays are a well made people, though rather below the middle stature, their limbs well shaped, but small, and particularly slender at the wrists and ancles. Their complexion is tawny, their eyes large, their noses seem rather flattened by art than nature ; and their hair is very long, black, and shining.

Besides the tiger and elephant, Malacca produces the civet cat described by Sonnerat, who also mentions that wild men are found in this peninsula, perhaps the noted Orang Outangs.

They are restless, fond of navigation, war, plunder, emigrations, colonies, desperate enterprises, adventures, and gallantry. They talk incessantly of their honour and their bravery, whilst they are universally considered by those with whom they have intercourse as the most treacherous ferocious people on the face of the globe ; and yet they speak the softest language of Asia. How much are they like a certain well known European nation ?

This ferocity is so well known to the European navigators that they universally avoid taking on board any seamen of that nation, except in the greatest distress, and then on no account to exceed two or three.

Opposite to the coast of Malacca, though at a considerable distance, are the islands of Andaman and of Nicobar. The great Andaman is about 140 British miles in length, but not more than 20 in the greatest breadth.—The people of the Andamans are as little civilized as any in the world, and are probably cannibals. They have woolly heads, and perfectly resemble negroes. Their character is truly brutal, insidious, and ferocious, and their canoes of the rudest kind. A British settlement has been recently formed on the Greater Andaman and some convicts sent thither from Bengal. The natives, about 2000, have already profited by the example of English industry.

The Nicobars are three ; the largest being about five leagues in circumference. They produce cocoa and areca trees, with yams and sweet potatoes ; and the eatable birds' nests, so highly esteemed in China, abound here as well as in the Andamans. The people are of a copper colour, with small oblique eyes and other Tatar features. In their dress, a small stripe of cloth hangs down behind ; and hence the ignorant tales of seamen which led even Linnæus to infer that some kind of men had tails.

SIAM.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES. THE extent of the Siamese dominions cannot be accurately defined. On the west a chain of mountains seems to divide Siam from Pegu; but the northern province of Yunshan would appear to be in the hands of the Birmans, who here seem to extend to the river Maykang. To the south and east the ancient boundaries are fixed; the ocean, and a chain of mountains, dividing Siam from Laos and Cambodia.

The length of the kingdom may be about ten degrees, or near 700 British miles; but of this about one half is not above 70 miles in medial breadth.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The Siamese history is imperfect, and abounds with fables. Their epoch is derived from the pretended disparition of their god Sammona Codam (or Boodh): yet by Loubere's account their first king began to reign in the year 1300 of their epoch, or about 756 years after the Christian era. Wars with Pegu, and occasional usurpations of the throne, constitute the hinges of Siamese history since the Portuguese discovery. In 1568 the Peguese king declared war on account of two white elephants which the Siamese refused to surrender, and after prodigious slaughter on both sides Siam became tributary to Pegu. But about 1620 Raja Hapi delivered his crown from this servitude. In 1680 Phalcon, a Greek adventurer, being highly favoured by the king of Siam, opened an intercourse with France, in the view of supporting his ambitious designs; but they were punished by his decapitation in 1689, and the French connexion ceased in consequence. The latter events of Siamese history may partly be traced in that of the Birman empire,

RELIGION, LAWS AND GOVERNMENT. The religion of the Siamese, like that of the Birmans, resembles that of the Hindoos; and the transmigration of souls forms an essential part of the doctrine; but they imitate the Chinese in their festival of the dead, and in some other rites of that singular nation.

The government of Siam is despotic; and the sovereign, as among the Birmans, revered with honours almost divine. The succession to the crown is hereditary in the male line.

The laws are represented by all writers on this country as extremely severe, death or mutilation being punishments even of unimportant offences.

POPULATION. Concerning the population of Siam there are no adequate documents. Yet Loubere assures us, that from actual enumeration, there are only found of men, women, and children, one million nine hundred thousand.

ARMY. The army which may be occasionally raised, has been estimated at 60,000, with not less than 3000 or 4000 elephants.

NAVY. The navy is composed of vessels of various sizes, some of which are richly decorated. Hence, as in the Birman history, naval engagements are not uncommon; and the large rivers of exterior India are often red-dened with human gore.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. Siam having embraced a branch of Hindoo faith, the manners of the people are assimilated in a great degree.

The women are under few restraints, and are married at an early age. The espousals are concluded by female mediation; and on the third visit the parties are considered as wedded, after the exchange of a few presents, without any farther ceremony civil or sacred. Polygamy is allowed; but rather from ostentation than any other motive.

The Siamese funerals considerably resemble those of the Chinese. The body is inclosed in a wooden bier or varnished coffin; and the monks, called Talapoins, sing hymns in the Bali tongue. After a solemn procession the body is burnt on a funeral pile of precious woods, erected near some temple.

The common nourishment of the Siamese consists in rice and fish, both which articles are abundant. They also eat lizards, rats, and several kinds of insects.

The houses are small, and constructed of bamboos upon pillars, to guard against inundations so common in this country. Even the palaces only exceed the common habitations by occupying a more extensive space, and being of a greater height, but never exceed one floor.

In person the Siamese are rather small, but well made. The figure of their countenance, both of men and women, has less of the oval than of the lozenge form, being broad, and raised at the top of the cheeks; and the forehead suddenly contracts, and is almost as pointed as the chin, their eyes rising somewhat towards the temples, are small and dull: the mouth is very large, with thick pale lips, and teeth blackened by art. The complexion is coarse, being brown mixed with red, to which the climate greatly contributes.

The dress is extremely slight, the warmth of the climate rendering clothes almost unnecessary.

The Siamese excel in theatrical amusements. They have also races of oxen and those of boats, combats of elephants, cock-fighting, tumbling, wrestling, and rope-dancing, religious processions, and illuminations, and beautiful exhibitions of fire-works.

LANGUAGE. In the Siamese language there are thirty-seven letters, all consonants; the vowels and diphthongs constituting a distinct alphabet. The words seem mostly monosyllabic, like the Chinese.

LITERATURE. In literature the Siamese are far from being deficient. At the age of seven or eight years the children are often placed in the convents of the Talapoins, where they are instructed in reading, writing, and accompts. They are also taught precepts of morality. Books of history are not unknown, and there is an excellent code of laws. Poetry, tales, and mythologic fables, seem to constitute the other departments of Siamese literature.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The capital city of the kingdom has been called Siam. It is situated in an isle formed by the river Meinam. The walls, in Loubere's time, were extensive; but not above a sixth part was inhabited. Its condition, since it was delivered from the Birman conquest in 1766, has not been described, nor have we any recent accounts of their other towns; but in general they were only

collections of hovels sometimes surrounded with a wooden stockade, and rarely with a brick wall.

EDIFICES. Kämpfer, in 1690, visited Siam ; and he minutely describes two remarkable edifices near the capital. The first is the famous pyramid called Puka Thon, erected in memory of a victory there obtained over the king of Pegu. It is a massy but magnificent structure, about 120 feet in height, in a square spot enclosed by a wall. The first stage is square, each side being about 115 paces long. The others vary in form ; and there are often galleries ornamented with columns. At the top it terminates in a slender spire.

The second edifice consists of two squares to the east of the city, each surrounded with a fair wall. They contain many temples, convents, chapels, and columns, particularly the temple of Berklam, with a grand gate ornamented with statues and other carvings.

MANUFACTURES. Though the Siamese are little skilled in the fabrication of iron or steel ; they excel in that of gold, and in miniature painting. The common people are mostly occupied in procuring fish for their daily food, while the superior classes are engaged in a trifling traffic.

COMMERCE. The commercial relations are chiefly with Hindostan, China, Japan, and the Dutch.

The productions of the country are prodigious quantities of grain, cotton, benjamin ; sandal, aguallo, and sapan woods ; antimony, tin, lead, iron, load-stone, gold, and silver ; sapphires, emeralds, agates, crystal, marble and tombac.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The two first months of the Siamese year, which correspond with our December and January, form the whole winter of this country ; the third, fourth, and fifth belong to what is called their little summer, which is their spring ; the seven others to their great summer. Autumn is unknown in their calendar. The winter is dry ; the summer moist ; the former is distinguished by the course of the wind, which blows almost constantly from the north, refreshed with cold from the snowy mountains of Tibet, and the bleak wastes of Mongolia.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. This country is a wide vale between two high ridges of mountains, thus somewhat resembling Egypt on a wider scale.

The soil towards the mountains is parched and unfertile, but on the shore of the river consists, like that of Egypt, of an extremely rich and pure mould, in which it is even difficult to find a pebble, and produces exuberant quantities of rice.

RIVERS. The grand river Meinam, a name which signifies the *mother of waters*, reigns supreme among the Siamese streams. It is very deep and rapid, always full, and, according to Kämpfer, larger than the Elbe. The inundations are in September, after the snows have greatly melted in the northern mountains, and the rainy season has commenced. In December the waters decline, and sink by degrees to their former level. The water though muddy, is pleasant and salutary.

ANIMALS. The chief animals of Siam are elephants, buffaloes, and deer. Horses seem little known or used, though found wild in Tibet. The elephants of Siam are of distinguished sagacity and beauty; and those of a white colour are treated with a kind of adoration, as the Siamese believe the souls of such are royal. Wild boars, tigers, and monkies, are also numerous. The Meinam is, at distant intervals of time, infested with small poisonous serpents; and the trees on its banks are beautifully illuminated with swarms of fire-flies.

MINERALS. There are some mines of gold, and others of copper; but the mines chiefly wrought by the Siamese are of tin and lead.

Near Louvo was a mountain of load-stone: fine agates abounded in the mountains, nor were sapphires unknown.

THE OTHER STATES OF EXTERIOR INDIA ARE,

1. **LAOS.** Surrounded with forests and deserts, and of difficult access by water. The soil is represented as fertile in rice; productive of the best benzoin and lacca, exquisite musk, with some gold and rubies.

2. **CAMBODIA.** This country, like Siam, is inclosed by mountains on the east and west, and fertilized by the river Maykaung, which begins to inundate the country in June. It is thinly peopled, and the capital called Cambodia, consists only of one street, with a single temple.

The most peculiar product is the substance styled gamboge, or rather camboge gum, yielding a fine yellow tint. Ivory also abounds, with several precious woods : and some add gold.

3. SIAMPA. This small maritime tract is to the S. E. of Cambodia. The people are large, muscular, and well made, the complexion is reddish, the nose rather flat, the hair is black and long, the dress very slight.

4. COCHIN CHINA. This country, presents an extensive range of coast, and has been visited by many navigators. As the shores abound with havens, the canoes and junks are numerous.

The superior ranks are clothed in silk, and display the politeness of Chinese manners. The dress of both sexes is similar, being loose robes with large long sleeves ; and cotton tunics and trowsers. A kind of turban covers the head of the men : but no shoes nor slippers are used. The houses are mostly of bamboo, covered with rushes or the straw of rice, and stand in groves of oranges, limes, plantains, and cocoa trees. The rainy season is during September, October, and November ; and the three following months are also cold and moist, presenting the semblance of an European winter. The inundations only last two or three days, but happen once a fortnight in the rainy season. March, April, May, form a delicious spring ; while the heat of the three following months is rather excessive.

The products of agriculture are rice of different qualities, yams, sweet potatoes, green pumpkins, melons. Sugar also abounds. Gold dust is found in the rivers ; and the mines yield ore of singular purity. Silver mines have also been lately discovered. Tigers, elephants, and monkeys abound in Cochin China ; and those edible birds' nests, esteemed a luxury in China, are chiefly found in this country.

5. TUNQUIN. This country was only divided from the former by a small river, and may at present be considered as incorporated with it by conquest. The inhabitants resemble their neighbours the Chinese, but their manners are not so civilized. The products are numerous, and seem to blend those of China with those of Hindostan. The rivers in the rainy season, from May to September, inundate the adjacent country. Kesho the capital city is

described by Dampier, as approaching the Chinese form, with a considerable population.

In the gulph of Tunquin and adjacent Chinese sea, the tuffoons, or Typhons are tremendous. "They are preceded by a cloud which appears in the north-east, black near the horizon, edged with copper colour on the upper part fading into a glaring white. It often exhibits a ghastly appearance twelve hours before the typhon bursts, which lasts many hours, blowing from the north-east, attended with dreadful claps of thunder, large and frequent flashes of lightning, and excessive hard rains."

HINDOSTAN.

INTRODUCTION.

General Observations.—Arrangement.—Natural and Political Divisions.—Plan of this present description.

GENERAL GEOGRAPHY. THE description of this interesting portion of Asia is not a little difficult, from its vast and irregular extent, from the want of grand subdivisions, from the diversity of nations and powers, large foreign settlements, and other causes, so that the first object must be to determine a clear and natural arrangement.

Mr. Pennant, who often excels in geographical delineation, has, in his view of Hindostan, been contented with the vague divisions of Western, Eastern, and Gangetic, or that part which is pervaded by the Ganges, and its tributary streams. Major Rennell, to whom we are indebted for an excellent map and memoir, which have thrown great light on Indian geography, first considers the sea coast and islands; as, in the construction of a map, the outline of the coast is the earliest object. He then describes Hindostan in four other sections: 1. That part occupied by the Ganges and its principal branches: 2. That occupied by the course of the Sindé, Sindeh, or river Indus: 3. The tract situated between the river Kistna, and the two former divisions: 4. The countries to the south of the Kistna, or what is perhaps improperly called the southern peninsula, as no part of Hindostan can be styled a peninsula, in the modern acceptation of being nearly surrounded by the sea.

GENERAL DIVISIONS. The general plan adopted by Major Rennell seems the best, not only in itself, as was

to have been expected from his profound acquaintance with the subject, but as having the advantage of being familiar to the public, from the widely diffused reputation of his work. Amidst the want of important ranges of mountains, rivers alone can be assigned as natural divisions; and as in Hindostan they do not form limits, the countries pervaded by their courses and tributary streams may be considered as detached by the hand of nature. Hence the Gangetic part of Hindostan, to use Mr. Pennant's term, includes the space from the confines of Tibet to the sources of the Chumbul and Sippra, and from the mountains near Agimere and Abugur hills, to the most eastern boundary of Hindostan.

That portion watered by the Sindé or Indus, and its subsidiary streams, may in like manner be termed Sindetic Hindostan; and as a supplement to this division may be considered the country of Sirhind, and other tracts to the west of Gangetic Hindostan.

The southern part is encompassed by the sea, except on the north, where the river Kistna and its subsidiary streams form the boundary. In ancient times this portion was styled Deccan, a native term implying the south. But the Deccan of the Hindoos extended twice as far in a northerly direction, even to the river Nerbudda; so that it would in fact, with the Gangetic and Sindetic divisions, nearly complete the whole of Hindostan. The term Deccan is therefore here used for the portion to the south of the Kistna.

That portion on the north of the Kistna, reaching to Gangetic Hindostan on the north and east, and the Sindetic with its supplementary provinces on the north and west, may be styled Interior or Central Hindostan.

In this arrangement the Gangetic part will include Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Cude, Agra, and a part of Delhi and Agimere. The Sindetic contains Kuttore, Cashmir, Cabul, Candahar, Lahore, Moultan, and Sindé.

The central division represents Guzerat, in the west, with Candeish, Berar, Orissa, the Sircars, the chief part of Golconda, Visiapour, Dowlatabad, and Concan.

The southern division includes a small portion of Golconda, Mysore, the extensive region called in modern times the Carnatic, with Madura, and other smaller districts; the western coast being called that of Malabar, and the eastern

that of Coromandel. In this part is naturally included the island of Ceylon.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS. The next topic to be considered, in a general view of Hindostan, is its political situation, as divided among various powers. Of these the English is at present preponderant, not only from European tactics, but from an actual extent of territory at least equal to that of any native power. To their former wide possessions in Gangetic Hindostan, with a large portion of the eastern coast from below the estuary of the Kistna to the lake of Chilka, and the detached government of Madras, have been recently added extensive regions in the south and west of Mysore, with Seringapatam the capital, not to mention Bombay and other detached establishments. And the large and important island of Ceylon has been wrested from the Dutch.

Next in consequence are the Maratta states, chiefly contained in the central division of Hindostan.

The Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, their firm ally, has considerably enlarged his territory in the south at the expense of Tippoo; the central part of whose dominions, except Seringapatam, is subject to the raja of Mysore, a descendant of the race dethroned by Hyder, an usurper.

The British, the Marattas, and the Nizam, may be regarded as the three leading powers, to which may be added on the west, or on the Sindetic division, the Seiks, and Zemaun Shah, or whatever prince holds the eastern division of Persia.

The following table, extracted, with a few alterations, from Major Rennell's memoir, will convey a more complete and satisfactory idea of this important topic.

I. BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

1. Bengal and Bahar, with the Zemindary of Benares.
2. Northern Sircars, including Guntoor.
3. Barra-Mahal, and Dindigul.
4. Jaghire in the Carnatic.
5. The Calicut, Palicaud, and Coorga countries.

II. BRITISH ALLIES.

1. Azuph Dowlah. Oude.
2. Mahomed Alli. Carnatic.
3. Travancore, and Cochin.

III. MARATTA STATES.

POONA MARATTAS.

1. Malwa.
2. Candeish.
3. Part of Amednagur, or Dowlatabad.
4. Visiapour.
5. Part of Guzerat.
6. ——— Agra.
7. ——— Agimere.
8. Allahabad.
9. Shanoor, or Sanore, Bancapour, Darwar, &c. situated in the Dooab, or country between the Kistna and Tombudra rivers.

TRIBUTARIES.

1. Rajah of Jyenagur.
2. ——— Joodpour.
3. ——— Oudipour.
4. ——— Narwah.
5. ——— Gohud.
6. Part of Bundelcund.
7. Mahomed Hyat. Bopaltol.
8. Fatty Sing. Amedabad.
9. Gurry Mundella, &c. &c.

BERAR MARATTAS.

1. Berar.
2. Orissa.

TRIBUTARY.

Bembajee.

IV. NIZAM ALI, SOUBAH OF THE DECCAN.

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Golconda. | Combam) and Gandicotta |
| 2. Aurungabad. | (or Ganjecotta.) |
| 3. Beder. | 7. Part of Gooty, Adoni, and |
| 4. Part of Berar. | Canoul. |
| 5. ——— Adoni, Rachore, and | 8. Part of the Dooab. |
| Canoul. | [9. Other districts acquired |
| 6. Cuddapali. Cummum (or | 1799.] |

V. SEIKS.

Lahore, Moultan, and the western parts of Delhi.

As the other great power chiefly extends over Persia, and may be regarded as foreign, it only remains to mention the small states.

1. Successors of Zabeda Cawn. Sehaurunpour.
2. Jats.
3. Pattan Rohillas. Furruckabad.
4. Adjig Sing. Rewah, &c.
5. Bundelcund, or Bundela.
6. Little Ballogistan.

To which may now be added the Raja of Mysore.

The British possessions prior to the fall of Tippoo, 1799, were supposed to contain 197,496 square British miles, being about 60,000 more than are comprised in the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland: the number of inhabitants was computed at ten millions. The acquisition in 1799 probably adds 15,000 square miles, and the population subject to Great Britain is supposed to be 12 or 14,000,000. The net revenue exceeded three millions before the cessions by Tippoo, in 1792, computed at 400,000*l*. while those in 1799 do not appear much to exceed half that sum. This great power and revenue of so distant a country, maintained in the midst of a highly civilized foreign nation, is perhaps unexampled in ancient or modern times.

The Marattas are divided into two states or empires, that of Poona, or the western, and Berar, or the eastern; each ruled by a number of chiefs or princes, who pay a nominal obedience to the paishwa, or sovereign. An account of the Marattas belongs to the central division of Hindostan. The Seiks, a new religious sect, first appeared in the middle of the seventeenth century, and have gradually become formidable to the neighbouring states. The Jats, or Jets, were a tribe of Hindoos, who about a century ago erected a state around the capital Agra. The Afghans, another peculiar people, originated from the mountains between Persia and India.

Before closing these general considerations with regard to this extensive country, it may be proper to observe that the name of Hindostan has been considered as synonymous with the empire of the great Mongul. But the power of the Monguls, which commenced under Baber, 1518, was most eminent in the northern parts, the Deccan, or south, remaining unsubdued till the time of Aurunzeb, 1678, when that region, with what is called the peninsula, a few mountains and inaccessible tracts only excepted, were either vanquished or rendered tributary to the throne of

Delhi. When Aurunzeb died in 1707, in his 90th year, the Mongul empire had obtained its utmost extent from the 10th to the 35th degree of latitude, (about 1750 British miles,) and about as much in length: the revenue exceeding thirty-two millions sterling, in a country where provisions are about four times as cheap as in England. The number of its subjects may be computed at about sixty millions. But this great power declined so rapidly, that within fifty years after his death, it may be said to have been annihilated, and the empire of the great Mongul has vanished from modern geography.

The plan to be pursued, in the subsequent brief account of Hindostan, has been above indicated as divided into four parts; the region on the Ganges, those on the Indus, the central, and the southern. In three of these divisions the British possessions are powerful, if not predominant; and it is difficult to connect the political with the natural geography. Doubts may justly arise whether the British territories ought not to form a separate and distinct portion in a perspicuous arrangement, this being another of the peculiar difficulties which attend the geography of Hindostan. But the grand mass of the population in these settlements consists of native Hindoos, and the natural geography of the country must not be sacrificed to any extraneous consideration, it still seems preferable to abide by the division already laid down. Hence that form of description must be chosen, which, resting on the perpetual foundations of nature, cannot be injured or obliterated by the destinies of man.

These considerations being premised, a similar arrangement shall here be followed in describing Hindostan, a labyrinth of eastern geography, with that used in delineating Germany, that labyrinth of European geography. A general view of the whole region shall be followed by a short sketch of each of the above divisions; in which the several states, chief cities, and other geographical topics, shall be briefly illustrated.

NAME. The name of this celebrated country in the ancient Sanscrit language is Bharata. That of Hindostan seems to have been imposed by the Persians. It was long known by the name of the empire of the Great Mogul, because it was then subject to Mongul emperors, successors of Timur.

BOUNDARIES. This portion of Asia extends from cape Comari, called by navigators Comorin, in the south, to the mountains which form the northern boundary of Cashmir; that is according to the most recent maps, from about the eighth to about the 35th degree of northern latitude, being twenty-seven degrees, or 1620 g. miles. The northern boundary may be yet farther extended to the Hindoo Koh, and mountains running E. and W. on the north of the province of Kuttore.

From the river Araba, on the west of the province of Sindé, to the mountains which divide Bengal from Cassay and the Birman dominions, that is from about the sixty-sixth to the ninety-second degree of east longitude from Greenwich, there are 26° which in the latitude of 25° constitute a breadth of more than 1400 g. miles.

The boundaries are marked on the north by the mountains above mentioned. On the west towards Persia, other ranges and deserts constitute the frontier till the southern separation ends in the river Araba. The other boundaries are supplied by the Indian ocean, and Bay of Bengal, the little river Naaf, and those mountains which divide the British possessions from Aracan, Cassay, and Cashur.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population may be generally considered as indigenous; yet amidst the great diversity of climate and situation, the native race presents considerable varieties, as being fairer in the northern parts, and in the southern almost or wholly black, but without the negro wool or features. Still the tinge of the women and superior classes is deep olive; and the Hindoo form and features may be said to approach the Persian or European standard. The Monguls with the Arabs and Persians, who are settled here, are generally called Moors.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The Hindoos never seem to have boasted of one native historian, and the best materials are derived from the Persian memoirs; from which Ferishta himself, a Persian, compiled his histories of Hindostan towards the beginning of the seventeenth century. In this defect of native records we must be contented with the epochs derived from foreign sources.

1. The invasion by Alexander the Great, who found western India divided among numerous potentates, though he advanced little farther than Lahore.

2. At a long interval appears the conquest of the north-western part by Mahmoud of Ghizni, A. D. 1000. The founder of the Mahometan empire in Hindostan.

3. The dynasty of the Patan, or Affghan emperors begins with Cuttub, A. D. 1205, and ends with Mahmoud III. 1393.

4. The great Moguls or Mongul emperors begin with Babar, 1525 ; and continued with a short interruption, by the Patans to Shah Aulum, to 1760.

The invasion by Timur, and, at a distant interval, that by Nadir, also form remarkable epochs in the history of this passive country.—The latter may be said to have virtually dissolved the Mogul empire.—The Portuguese settlements were followed by those of the Dutch.—The French power began to predominate in 1749, but speedily closed in 1761, with the loss of their principal settlement Pondicherry.—As merchants the English had long held small settlements in Hindostan ; but the expedition into Tanjore, 1749, was the first enterprise against a native prince. Other contests followed concerning Arcot in the kingdom of Carnada, or what we call the Carnatic.—In 1756 the fort of Calcutta, the chief settlement in Bengal, was taken by the nabob, and many of the inhabitants perished in a shocking manner, from being confined in a small chamber.—The battle of Plassey, fought in June, 1757, laid the foundation of the subsequent power of Britain. Lord Clive, governor of Bengal, 1765, obtained a grant from the nominal Mogul, of Bengal, Bahar, and part of Orissa, on condition of an annual tribute. Soon after the English were engaged in a contest with Hyder Alli, a soldier of fortune, who had dethroned the lineal sovereign of Mysore, and extended his conquests to the adjacent territories. Some conflicts followed on the confines of Carnada and Mysore ; but the event was little advantageous to either party.—Hyder, dying in 1783, was succeeded by his son Tippoo, who seems to have been a prince of inferior abilities, and expiated his ill arranged plans by his death, and the partition of his territories, in 1799.

The Bengal provinces have been in possession of the English since 1765 ; and Benares was added in 1775. This portion might constitute a considerable kingdom, and is sufficiently compact and secure by natural advantages, independently of a formidable force. The Sircars, or de-

tached provinces, partly belong to Golconda, and partly to Orissa, forming a long narrow slip of country from twenty to seventy-five miles wide, but about three hundred and fifty in length. These detached Sircars or countries, being to the north of Madras, on which they are dependent, are commonly styled the northern Sircars. In 1754 they were acquired by the French; and conquered by the English under Colonel Clive in 1759.

The English settled at Madras about the year 1640; and their territory here extends about a hundred and eight British miles along the shore, and forty-seven in breadth, in the centre of the ancient kingdom of Carnada.

The celebrated battle of Panniput was fought in 1761, between the Mahometans under Abdalha king of Candahar, and the Marattas, in which the latter were defeated: the Mahometans were computed at 150,000, and the Marattas at 200,000.

ANCIENT MONUMENTS. Some of the most remarkable monuments are excavated temples, statues, relievos, &c. in an island near Bombay. The idols represented seem clearly to belong to the present mythology of Hindostan; but at what period these edifices were modelled, whether three hundred, or three thousand years ago, must be left in the darkness of Hindoo chronology.

MYTHOLOGY. Though the mythology of the Hindoos may pretend to great antiquity, yet their present form of religion is supposed to vary considerably from the ancient. The artful Bramins have introduced many innovations in order to increase their own power and influence; but it appears that the fabric rests on that almost universal system of the east, the belief in a supreme Creator too ineffable and sublime for human adoration, which is therefore addressed to inferior, but great and powerful divinities.

RELIGION. The religion of the Hindoos is artfully interwoven with the common offices of life; and the different casts are supposed to originate from Brahma, the immediate agent of creation under the supreme power in the following manner:

The *Brahmin* from the mouth (wisdom): To pray, to read, to instruct; which sect has had art enough to raise themselves above all the rest.

The *Chehteree*, from the arms (strength): To draw the bow, to fight, to govern.

The *Brice*, from the belly or thighs (nourishment): To provide the necessaries of life by agriculture and traffic.

The *Sooder*, from the feet (subjection); To labour, to serve.

GOVERNMENT. Hindostan is now divided into many governments, the form of which must be considered in describing the several states. Suffice it here to observe, that though the Bramins be the most dignified cast, yet there do not seem to have been one or more high priests, as in the surrounding countries. The sovereignty was abandoned to the military cast, and the monarch was presumed to be the proprietor of all the lands, except those belonging to the church.

LAWS. The laws of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and the curious reader may consult the code, translated and published by the direction of Mr. Hastings.

POPULATION. The population of this extensive part of Asia is supposed to amount to sixty millions, of which the British possessions may now perhaps contain a quarter.

GENERAL REVENUES. The general revenues of Hindostan were computed in the time of Aurunzeb, by a precise calculation of those of the several provinces, at thirty-two millions sterling; equal perhaps, considering the comparative price of products, to one hundred and sixty millions sterling in modern England.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and are universally similar, with a few exceptions in mountainous and other peculiar districts. One of the most singular begins to expire, that of giving the living widow to the same flames with her husband's corpse.

As soon as a child is born it is carefully registered in its proper cast, and astrologers are consulted concerning its destiny. A Bramin imposes the name. The infant thrives by what we would call neglect; and no where are seen more vigour and elegance of form. The boys are generally taught reading and writing by Bramins, but the girls are confined at home till their twelfth year. Polygamy is practised, but one wife is acknowledged as supreme. The Hindoos are extremely abstemious, and wholly abstain from animal food and intoxicating liquors. The

houses are built of earth or bricks, covered with mortar, and sometimes with excellent cement, with no windows, or only small apertures. There is generally only a ground floor, inclosing a court, with a small gallery supported by slight wooden pillars.

LANGUAGES. The general ancient language of Hindostan is believed to have been the Sanscrit, an original and refined speech, compared by Sir William Jones with the Greek and Latin. The more common dialects used in these extensive regions are very various; not fewer than nine or ten.

LITERATURE. The literature of Hindostan doubtless contains several valuable and curious monuments; but their epochs are extremely uncertain. Hence little else than confusion and contradiction are to be found in the numerous accounts published of Hindoo literature.

The most important books are the Vedas; there are also some epic poems which pretend to contain fragments of genuine history. It is probable the oldest was not written above seven hundred years ago.—It is a great singularity that the old Hindoo grants of land, many of which have been translated and published, are extremely long, and in a strange poetical or inflated style, some of the compound words consisting of not less than one hundred and fifty syllables! When we compare these singularities with the brevity and clearness of the Greek and Roman inscriptions, we are led to conclude that the Hindoos are the puerile slaves of a capricious imagination.

The Hindoos are ignorant of the Chinese art of printing; they are nevertheless in general highly civilized, and of the most gentle and amiable manners. But perhaps in no art nor science are they equal to the Chinese or Japanese; and in most are confessedly greatly inferior.

The chief university in the north is that of Benares, a most celebrated and ancient school, now included in the English possessions. In the Deccan the academy of Tricur, on the Malabar coast, is also in great repute. “At *Cangiburam*, in *Carnate*, there is still a celebrated Brahman school, which, according to the testimony of Ptolemy, existed in the first century of the Christian era; and its members are certainly equal in celebrity to the Brahmans of *Benares*.”

MANUFACTURES. The manufactures of Hindostan have been celebrated from early antiquity, particularly the muslins and other fabrics from cotton. Nor is Hindostan famous at this day for any manufacture, except those of muslins and calicoes, the other exports consisting of diamonds, raw silks, with a few wrought silks, spices, drugs, &c. The shawls of Cashmir are also deservedly esteemed; being there woven from a material chiefly supplied by Tibet. Painting and sculpture are in their infancy; yet the temples are sometimes majestic and solemn. In most trades very few tools are employed. The simple loom is reared in the morning under a tree, and carried home in the evening.

NATIVE PRODUCTS. But it is the abundance of native products, which has in all ages rendered Hindostan the centre of great trade. Diamonds, and some other precious stones, are products almost peculiar; as well as many spices, aromatics, drugs, rice, and sugar.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate and seasons are considerably diversified by difference of latitude, and local situation. In Bengal the hot, or dry season begins with March, and continues to the end of May, the thermometer sometimes rising to 110° : this intense heat is sometimes interrupted by violent thunder storms from the north-west—The rainy season continues from June to September: the three last months of the year are generally pleasant; but excessive fogs often prevail in January and February. The periodical rains are felt in Sindetic Hindostan, and in the rest of the country they almost deluge it, descending like cataracts from the clouds, and the Ganges and other rivers spread to a wide extent, the inundation ceasing in September. “By the latter end of July all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter, are overflowed, and form an inundation of more than a hundred miles in width; nothing appearing but villages and trees, excepting very rarely the top of an elevated spot (the artificial mound of some deserted village) appearing like an island.”

In the southern division the chains of the Gauts, or mountains of Malabar and Coromandel, supporting the high table land in the centre, intercept the great mass of clouds; and the alternate S. W. and N. E. winds, called the Monsoons, occasion a rainy season on one side of the

mountains only, that is, on the windward side. The monsoon is from the N. E. from October to April; and from May to September in the opposite direction. In general March, April, May, and June are the dry months.

Excessive rains, or excessive heats, form the chief varieties of the year, and produce luxuriance of vegetation, almost unknown to any other country on the globe.

SOIL. The soil in some places is so excellent as to consist of black vegetable mould to the depth of six feet. Rice is the chief grain; and on the dry sandy lands of the coast of Coromandel great industry is displayed in watering it.

Maize and the sugar-cane are also favourite products. The cultivation of cotton is also widely diffused; and this plant particularly thrives on the dry coast of Coromandel.

RIVERS. The rivers of Hindostan are large and numerous, but our limits will not permit us to describe many of them.

The Ganges must still be considered as the sacred sovereign of the Hindoo rivers. It receives such a number of important tributary streams, that its magnitude exceeds what might have been expected from the comparative length of its course; which may however be estimated at about fourteen hundred British miles. Tieffenthaler has laid down the latitude of the noted Gangoutra, or Cow's mouth in lat. 33° , being a celebrated cataract where the Ganges is said to pass through a vast cavern in a mountain, falling into a large bason which it has worn in the rock. At about two hundred and eighty miles to the south of this place the Ganges enters the wide plains of Hindostan; and pursues a south-east direction by the cities of Canoge, Allahabad, Benares, Patna, &c. till dividing into many grand and capacious mouths, it forms an extensive delta at its egress into the gulph of Bengal. The extreme mouths of the Ganges are intersected with isles, called the Sunderbunds, overgrown with tall bamboos and other luxuriant vegetation, the impenetrable haunts of the royal tiger and other beasts of prey. On the westernmost outlet of the Ganges, called the Hoogley, or Ugli, stands Calcutta, the capital of British Hindostan. This, and the most eastern which receives the Burrampooter, are the widest and most important branches.

The noblest tributary stream of the Ganges is the Burrampooter. This river runs for four hundred miles through the British territory; and for the last 60 miles before its junction with the Ganges is from four to five miles wide. On their union below Luckipour, they form a body of running fresh water, resembling a gulph of the sea, interspersed with islands, some of which rival in size and fertility the Isle of Wight. In the mouths of the Ganges and the Megna, the sudden influx of the tide will rise instantaneously to the height of from five to twelve feet.

The course of the Burrampooter is supposed to be nearly equal in length to that of the Ganges. The sources of these great rivers are stated to be very near, yet they separate to the distance of more than a thousand miles, and afterwards join in their termination.

The Indus is by the natives called Sindé, or Sindeh, and is supposed to have its source in the Belur Tag, or cloudy mountains. Its comparative course may be about a thousand British miles, when it forms a delta in the province of Sindé, entering by many mouths into the Indian sea.

There are several tributary rivers which join the Sindé chiefly in the northern half of its course, where they form the Panjab, or country of Five Rivers; but the whole of this part of Hindostan is little known to the moderns; and it is uncertain whether the Caggar, a considerable and distant river to the east, join the Sindé, or fall into the gulph of Cutch.

The Deccan, or most southern part of Hindostan, is considered as bounded and enriched by the Kistna, and its tributary streams. The Kistna, a sacred river, rises at Balisur in the chain of Sukhien, not far to the south of Poona, and forms a delta near Masulipatam, after a comparative course of about five hundred British miles. This river rivals any Indian stream in the fertility diffused by its inundations; and the richest diamond mines in the world are in the neighbouring hills to the north. The chief tributary streams in that quarter are the Beema, passing near the diamond mines of Visiapour; and the Muzi, or Moussi, by those of Golconda. But the most considerable river joins the Kistna from the south, called the Toombudra, on the banks of which have been recently disclosed many populous provinces, and flourishing towns.

LAKES. In this extensive portion of Asia the lakes seem to be few, and of small account. The country of Cashmir is supposed to have been originally a large lake, as reported in the native traditions; and a considerable expanse of water still remains in the northern part of this delightful country, called the lake of Ouller or Tal, being about fifty-three British miles in circuit.

MOUNTAINS. The mountains chiefly celebrated by the Hindoos may be said to be only visible from their country, being the northern chain of the Tibetan Alps, covered with perpetual snow.

The rest are mostly delineated in Major Rennell's excellent map of Hindostan. The following list contains most of the names there to be found.

The Chaliscuteli hills, between the western desert and the Setlege.

The Alideck mountains, above Gujurat.

The mountains of Gomaun, or Kemaon, called also those of Sewalic.

The mountains of Himmaleh, N. of Tassiudon.

In Bengal are several ridges of hills without names, which is the case even with the chain on the N. W. of the Sircars.

The Lucknow hills, at the source of the Mahanada.

Those of Gondwanah, running parallel with the Nerbudda for a space, and then turning south to Narnalla.

The ridges near the Chumbul are also without names.

The Grenier mountains in Guzerat.

The Shatpoorta hills, between the Nerbudda and the Taptee.

On the other side of the Nerbudda there are also remarkable parallel ridges, giving source to many rivers, but nameless.

The important diamond mountains of Golconda and Visiapour.

A ridge called the Bundeh mountains runs parallel to the Godaveri on the south, but at a considerable distance from that river.

The Gauts, peculiarly so called, are ranges which run along the western and eastern coasts of the Deccan. The former is by the natives called the mountains of Sukhien.

These chains rise abruptly on each side, but particularly the west, forming as it were enormous walls, supporting a

high terrace or table land in the middle. Exclusive of a gap, the mountains of Sukhein extend from Cape Comorin to Surat, at the distance of from forty to seventy miles from the shore.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. A more fertile soil, and climate better adapted to the most profuse luxuriance of vegetation than the well watered tracts in this vast peninsula, cannot possibly be found in any part of the known world. Double harvests, two crops of fruit from many of the trees, and from most of the rest a copious and regular supply during the greater part of the year, are the basis that support its swarming population, while its timber of every quality, its plants of medicinal virtue, its numerous and exquisite dying drugs, and its cottons and other vegetable articles of clothing, offer to its inhabitants the materials of enjoyment and civilization.

The most distinguishing feature in tropical landscapes is the multitude of lofty trees of the palm kind. The cocoa nut tree, perhaps the most widely diffused of any, is found in abundance on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. The areca palm, the smaller fan-palm is distinguished for its broad fan-shaped leaves, which are used for writing on, and for thatching. This although a large tree is far inferior to the greater fan-palm which abounds on the lower mountains of the Carnatic; each leaf of this vast tree is capable of covering ten or a dozen men, and two or three of them are sufficient to roof a cottage.

Of the other fruit bearing trees there are, the papaw fig, remarkable for the sweetness and rose flavour of their fruit; the pillaw is a tree of equal singularity and use; from its trunk and larger branches are produced fibrous bags, sometimes of the weight of twenty-five pounds, which are filled with nuts like the chesnut, and resembling the almond in flavour. The mango however is reckoned the most exquisite of the Indian fruits, and is found in considerable abundance, both wild and cultivated through the whole Peninsula.

Of the trees whose produce is used in medicine or the arts, the most worthy of notice are the cassia fistula; the tamarind; the gambogia; the laurus cassia, whose bark is a common substitute for cinnamon; cæsalpina sappan, a red wood used in dying; sandal wood, &c. The chief timber trees are the teak, used specially for ship building;

the ebony ; and the ferreola, the hardest of all the Indian woods.

A few other trees require notice from the size or beauty, such as the banyan tree and Indian fig ; the hibiscus ficulneus is remarkable by its magnitude, and the profusion of its elegant blossoms, and is of peculiar value in the tropical climate, as hardly any insects are found under its shade. The cotton tree rises with a thorny trunk eighteen feet in circumference to the height of fifty feet without a branch, it then throws out numerous boughs, which are adorned in the rainy season with purple blossoms as large as the open hand, and these are succeeded by capsules filled with a fine kind of cotton.

The numerous cavalry which form the armies of the Hindoo princes imply great numbers of horses ; and the breeds most celebrated are those of Lahore and Turkistan, but the grandees are supplied from Persia and Arabia.

The cattle of Hindostan are numerous, and often of a large size, with a hunch on the shoulders. The sheep are covered with hair instead of wool, except in the most northern parts.

Antelopes abound, of various beautiful kinds, particularly that called the Nilgau, which is of a considerable size.

The Arabian camel, or that with a single hunch, is not unfrequent about Patna. The elephant has been frequently described ; the usual height of this intelligent animal is about ten feet. Apes and monkies abound in various regions of Hindostan ; and the orang outang is said to be found in the vast forests on the W. of the Sircars. The dogs are generally of the cur kind, with sharp erect ears, and pointed noses. The other animals are wild boars, bears, wolves, foxes, jackalls, hyenas, leopards, panthers, lynxes : in the north, musk weasels, and many other quadrupeds of inferior size.

The lion seems to have been always unknown in Hindostan. The royal Tiger of Bengal is however a far more terrible animal than the stoutest lion. Such is their size and strength that they are said to carry off bullocks, the height of some being said to be five feet, and the length in proportion. Parties of pleasure on the isles at the mouth of the Ganges have often been shockingly interrupted by the sudden appearance of the tiger, prepared for his fatal spring, which is said to extend a hundred feet, not improbable when

compared with that of the cat. Wild peacocks abound in Tibet and Ceylon; our common fowl are also found wild in the jungles, whence they are called jūngle fowl.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of Hindostan may be opened by its most distinguished and peculiar product, celebrated in all ages of the world, that of diamonds, which are indeed also found in Brazil, but of far inferior quality.

The chief and most celebrated diamond mines are those near Visiapour and Golconda, both near streams that flow into the Kistna in the southern division of Hindostan, Golconda being in the territory of the Nizam, while Visiapour belongs to the Marattas.

Next in value to the diamond are the sapphire and the ruby, which are chiefly found in the Birman territories; but the ruby also occurs in Ceylon, which likewise produces an inferior kind of sapphire, the topaz, and other precious stones.

Among the metals gold is found in the rivers which flow from Tibet into the Ganges and Indus; but no gold mines seem ever to have been known in Hindostan, which has rather been celebrated for attracting this metal in commerce from other countries. Silver seems rare in general throughout the oriental regions, and there is no indication of this mineral through all India.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. Among the singular features of nature may be mentioned the appearance of the provinces on the rivers, during the season of inundation, when access is opened by numerous channels to places before inland. The grand aspect of the northern mountains covered with snow, and the wide desert on the east of the Indus, between 4 and 500 miles in length and from 60 to 150 in breadth, are also grand features; as is the high table land of Mysore, supported by natural buttresses of mountains.

GANGETIC HINDOSTAN,

OR, THE COUNTRIES ON THE GANGES.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS. Bengal, Bahar, with Benares, and some other districts to the west, forming the chief basis and centre of English power in this country, it

is proper first to consider them apart, and then proceed to some account of the other provinces. The British settlements here extend about 550 miles in length by 300 in breadth, in themselves a powerful kingdom. The native population is computed at ten or eleven millions of black subjects, exclusive of the English, whose number seems not authenticated.

REVENUE. The revenue of these British provinces is computed at 4,210,000*l.* sterling; the expense of collection, military and civil charges, &c. 2,540,000*l.* so that the clear revenue is 1,670,000*l.* They are well situated in respect to security from foreign invasion; and since they were in possession of the British have enjoyed more tranquillity than any part of Hindostan has known since the reign of Aurungzeb.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Bengal and its wide dependencies was first vested in a governor-general and a supreme council, consisting of a president and eleven counsellors; but in 1773 these were restricted to four, with Warren Hastings the governor-general, who were to direct all affairs, civil and military, in the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa; and to control the inferior governments of Madras on the E. and Bombay on the W. with Bencoolen in the island of Sumatra. The court of judicature consists of a chief justice and three other judges, with civil, criminal, naval, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The Hindoos are governed by their own laws.

ARMY. The military establishment in Bengal is always respectable, but varies according to the situation of affairs. The British troops are supported by the Sepoys, a well trained native militia.

CITIES AND TOWNS. The chief city of Bengal, and of all the British possessions in Hindostan, is Calcutta. The latitude is 22° 33' north, and the longitude 88° 28' east from Greenwich.

“Generally speaking, the description of one Indian city is a description of all; they being all built on one plan, with exceedingly narrow, confined, and crooked streets; with an incredible number of reservoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens interspersed. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built, some of brick, others with mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos and mats; those of the latter kind are invariably

of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat terraced roofs and are few in number.

“ Calcutta, is, in part, an exception to this rule of building : for there the quarter inhabited by the English is composed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses ; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greatest part, is built as above described. Calcutta is the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the Governor General of India. It is a very extensive and populous city, being supposed at present to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. Calcutta is situated on the western arm of the Ganges, at about one hundred miles from the sea ; and the river is navigable up to the town for the largest ships that visit India. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village of Govindpour, about nine years ago. The citadel is superior in every point, as to strength and correctness of design, to any fortress in India : but on too extensive a scale to answer the useful purpose intended, that of holding a post in case of extremity.”

In this grand capital of British Asia the mixture of people and manners presents a picturesque and interesting scene. The black Hindoo, the olive-coloured Moor or Mahometan, contrast with the fair and florid countenances of the English ; and the charms of the European damsel receive a foil from the dark Hindoo beauties. To the luxuries of the Asiatic are added the elegance and science of the English life. Even the newspapers are drawn up with care, and printed with elegance ; and the Asiatic society, instituted by the late admirable Sir William Jones, forms a noble monument of science in a distant country.

The commerce of Calcutta is very great in salt, sugar, opium, silks, and muslins, &c. The fine muslins are chiefly fabricated in the rainy season from May to September, and, with calicoes, form a great part of the exports to Europe.

In the eastern part of the British possessions the most considerable town is Dacca, beyond the principal stream of the Ganges. Dacca is celebrated for manufactures of the most delicate muslins, so much in request in the European market. Hoogley, or Ugli, is a small but ancient city,

about 26 miles above Calcutta, on the grand western branch of the Ganges, which thence receives its name.

Patna is the capital of the province of Bahar, situated about 400 miles N. W. from Calcutta, being tolerably fortified, and a place of considerable trade; most of the saltpetre, in particular, exported to England is made in the province of Bahar.

Benares approaches to the western frontier of the British possessions, the district having been ceded to the East India Company in the year 1775. It is a rich, populous, and compact city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, about 460 miles from Calcutta.

On leaving the British possessions, towards the west, first occurs Allahabad, a city belonging to the nabob of Oude, but of little consequence.

Lucknow is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyzabad.

The great and good emperor Acbar constituted Agra the capital of the Mogul empire about A. D. 1566. It has rapidly declined.

To the N. W. of Agra, near the confines of Sindetic Hindostan, stands the celebrated city of Delhi, the Mahometan capital of India. This metropolis may be said to be now in ruins.

Oujein which may be considered as the farthest city in the south of that portion now under view. It is about six miles in circumference, surrounded by a strong wali, with round towers. The houses partly brick, partly wood, covered with lime, tarass, or tiles; the bazar, or market, is spacious, and paved with stone: there are four mosques, and several Hindoo temples, with a new palace built by Sindia.

About 80 miles south of Agra is the noted fort of Gwalior: it stands on an insulated rock about four miles in length, but narrow: the sides are almost perpendicular, from two to three hundred feet above the surrounding plain. On the top there is a town with wells and reservoirs, and some cultivated land. This celebrated fortress, which is about 80 miles to the south of Agra, was taken by surprise by a few English under Major Popham, in 1779.

Adjoining to the British settlements in this part of India are the people of Aracan, Mickley, and Sirinagur, rude mountaineers, too unimportant to deserve a place in this epitome.

SINETIC HINDOSTAN ;

OR,

THE COUNTRIES ON THE RIVER SINDEH OR INDUS.

EXTENT. THIS part extends from the northern mountains of Cashmir, and the Hindoo Koh, in the north of Cabul, to the mouth of the Indus, a length of about 900 British miles, and about 350 in medial breadth.

We shall begin with the N. E. and end with the S. W. after mentioning that Agimer, which may be regarded as the most eastern city of this division, is little remarkable, except for a strong fortress on a hill.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS. The town of Sirhind is placed by modern maps on the river Caggar, which Major Rennell supposes to follow a detached course into the gulph of Cutch: perhaps it may be lost in the great sandy desert.

Lahore, now the capital of the Seiks, was the residence of the first Mahometan conquerors before they advanced to the more central parts; and, including the suburbs, was supposed to be three leagues in length. From Lahore to Agra, near 500 English miles, there was an avenue of shady trees. The river Rauvee passes by Lahore, being the Reva of the Hindoos.

Almost due north from Lahore, at the supposed distance of about 200 British miles, stands Cashmir, the capital of the delightful province so called. "The city extends about three miles on each side of the river Jalum, over which are four or five wooden bridges, and occupies in some part of its breadth, which is irregular, about two miles. The houses, many of them two and three stories high, are slightly built of brick and mortar, with a large intermixture of timber. On a standing roof of wood is laid a covering of fine earth, which shelters the building from the great quantity of snow that falls in the winter season. In the summer season, the tops of the houses, which are planted with a variety of flowers, exhibit at a distance the spacious view of a beautifully chequered parterre. The streets are narrow, and choaked with the filth of the inhabitants, who are proverbially unclean." The country of Cashmir is a delicious vale, extending in an oval form, about 90 miles

from S. E. to N. W. It was subject to the Zagathai princes till A. D. 1586, when it became subject to the Monguls, and afterwards to the Afgans. Rice is the common product of the plains : while the surrounding hills yield wheat, barley, and other crops. The celebrated shawls are only manufactured here. The price at the loom is from 26s. to 5l. and the revenue is transmitted to the Afgan capital in this fabric. The Cashmirians are stout and well formed, but their features often coarse and broad, even those of the women, who in this northern part of India are of a deeper brown complexion than those of southern France or Spain. The dress is inelegant, but the people gay and lively, and fond of parties of pleasure on their delicious lake.

The wide space from Cashmir to Cabul is more remarkable for numerous streams and mountains than any other circumstance ; but the country is diversified with gentle hills, fertile vales, and stately forests, and besides delicate fruits and flowers is abundant in other productions. Ghizni was the seat of the first Mahometan conquerors, and the ancient capital of the country. The city of Cabul is the capital of the dominions of the Persian Shah, usually styled king of Candahar, whose dominions extend westward beyond the sea of Durrah, including a great part of Corasan, with the large Persian province of Segistan, being about 800 British miles in length by about half that breadth. Cabul is esteemed a considerable city, in a romantic and healthy situation.

Pursuing the course of the Indus towards the south, the small city and fortress of Attock which were only built by Acbar, 1581, present themselves : but the vicinity was memorable in ancient times as the general passage from India to the west.

Moultan, the capital of the province so called, is about 170 British miles to the south of Attock, on the river Chunnab. It is a small city, and of little consequence, except for its antiquity and cotton manufacture.

The last remarkable city on the Indus is Tatta, the capital of the province of Sindi, and situated within the Delta, the upper part of which is well cultivated, while the lower presents only low brushwood, swamps, and lakes. At Tatta the heats are so violent, and the winds from the sandy deserts on the E. and N. W. so pernicious, that many pre-

cautions are used. The manufactures of this city in silk, wool from Kerman, and cotton, have greatly declined.

CENTRAL HINDOSTAN;

OR,

THE MIDDLE PROVINCES.

BOUNDARIES. THIS division is chiefly bounded by Gangetic Hindostan on the north, and on the west by the sandy desert and the ocean. The southern limit is the river Kistna, with its tributary stream the Beema; while the east is washed by the bay of Bengal. The length E. to W. is little less than 1200 British miles; while the medial breadth is about 400. In it are comprehended the province of Orissa, with part of Golconda, Berar, Dowlatabad, Candeish, and Guzerat, and other districts of inferior name; and on the eastern shore are the British provinces of the Sircars.

CHIEF CITIES. In a natural transition from the division of India last described, the province of Guzerat first presents itself, like a large promontory, but the shores seem little adapted to commercial purposes. The chief city of Guzerat, Amedabad, is considerable, and well fortified, taken by the English under general Goddard in 1780, restored to the Marattas in 1783. Cambay, at the distance of more than 50 miles, is a handsome city, and formerly of great trade in spice, ivory, silk, and cotton cloths; but is now little frequented.

Surat was formerly more celebrated as the port whence the Mahometans of India embarked on their pilgrimage to Mecca, than for any other circumstance. The Portuguese seized Surat soon after their arrival in Hindostan; and it was among the first places in this country frequented by the English. It is said to contain 500,000 inhabitants.

Bombay at a considerable distance to the south is a well known English settlement, on a small island about seven miles in length, containing a very strong capacious fortress, a large city, a dock yard; and a marine arsenal. It was ceded to the English in 1662, by the Portuguese, as part of the dower of the queen of Charles II.

On leaving the shore and proceeding towards the east of central Hindostan, first occurs the city of Burhampour, of small note. Ellichpour is of considerable importance, being the chief city of Berar. Nagpour is the capital of the eastern division of the Maratta empire, as Poona is of the western, being a modern city of small size.

Not far to the east of this city begins that extensive and unexplored wilderness, which is pervaded by the great river Bain or Baun Gonga, and terminates in the mountains bounding the English Sircars.

On turning towards the west, few places of note arise, except Aurungabad, a modern city, deriving its name from Aurungzeb, in whose time it was the capital of the Decan. Near this city is Dowlatabad, which gives name to the province, with a singular fortress on a peaked rock.

This central part of Hindostan was formerly the seat of great power, and the western coasts greatly frequented by foreign merchants of all nations, but its commerce has been transferred to the Ganges.

In later times the southern part of this coast was remarkable upon another account, being the chosen residence of daring pirates. They resembled on a small scale the piratical states of Barbary, and a succession of *Angrias* was continued till 1756, when the British seized Gheriah, the principal fortress.

THE SOUTHERN DIVISION OF HINDOSTAN.

BOUNDARIES. THIS part, which may also be called the Deccan or south, is bounded by the river Kistna; and extends from the latitude of Bombay to the southern point of Cape Comorin, about 830 British miles in length; and about 350 of medial breadth. It contains nearly the whole of the province of Visiapour, and the most important part of that of Golconda, with the central kingdom of Mysore, the long eastern province of the Carnatic, the principalities of Tanjore, Travancore, and the Samorins of Calicut, the pepper coast of Canara, and other districts.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS. In addition to the district around Madras, the British power was, in 1792 and 1799, extended over wide provinces in the south and west of Mysore, and Seringapatam the capital is also in their possession.

CHIEF CITIES. In recent times Seringapatam may be regarded as the most important city in this portion of Hindostan. It is situated in an isle, surrounded by the river Caveri, which is even here about five feet deep, and runs over a rocky channel. The length of this isle is about four miles, and the breadth about a mile and a half; the western side being allotted to the fortress, distinguished by regular out-works, magnificent palaces, and lofty mosques. The environs are decorated with noble gardens; and among the means of defence was what is called the *bound hedge*, consisting of every thorny tree or caustic plant of the climate, planted to the breadth of from thirty to fifty feet.

In this central territory the British also possess several considerable towns, Salem and Attore in the east; Dindigul, Coimbetore, Palicaud, on the south; and on the western coast, Paniany, Ferokabad, Calicut, now nearly deserted, Tellicherri, Mangalore, and Carwar within forty miles of the Portuguese settlement of Goa; while on the south they approach within a like distance of Cochin. In the Carnatic they have long held Madrass, where they settled so early as 1640; but the fortress, which is strong, and includes a regular well-built city, is of modern date. Unhappily there is no port, nor is there indeed one haven for large vessels, from the mouth of the Ganges to Trincomali on the eastern side of Ceylon, which renders this last of singular benefit to their commerce.

Not far from the western frontier of the settlement at Madrass stands Arcot, esteemed the capital of the Carnatic. The Navab often resides at Madrass. In his dominions there are several celebrated temples, visited by numerous pilgrims; in general the southern parts of Hindostan display more numerous edifices, and other marks of civilization, than the northern.

Tranquebar is a noted Danish settlement in the kingdom of Tanjore, which embraces the wide Delta of the Caveri. This settlement was formed about 1617, and has been chiefly remarkable on account of the Lutheran missionaries, who resorted hither to convert the Hindoos. Pondicherri was the principal settlement of the French, founded in 1674, and before the war of 1756, was a large and beautiful city.

On the western coast, or that of Malabar, stands Cochin. This city remained subject to the Portuguese till 1660, when it was taken by the Dutch. The surrounding creeks and marshes of this low and unhealthy shore abound with fish and game.

To the north of the British territories first occurs Goa, formerly a capital settlement of the Portuguese, and a noted seat of their Inquisition. This city, once magnificent, stands on a small isle in the midst of a beautiful bay. The harbour is ranked among the first in India, and if in the hands of the English, would probably resume its former consequence.

Porna is the capital of the western empire of the Marattas, but a mean defenceless city; the archives of the government, and in all appearance the chief seat of power, being at Poorunder, a fortress about eighteen miles to the south-east.

Visiapour in the Maratta territory is a considerable city. In the vicinity are celebrated diamond mines.

Hydrabad is the metropolis of the Nizam's territory, and particularly of the celebrated kingdom or province of Golconda, but seems otherwise little remarkable. Betwixt these two last named cities stands Calberga, formerly the capital of a powerful kingdom, that of the Deccan, under the Bamineah dynasty.

ISLAND OF CEYLON.

EXTENT AND NAME. THIS island approaches to the size of Ireland, being generally supposed to be about 260 British miles in length, by about 150 in breadth. It is the Trapobana of the ancients; and the people are doubtless of Hindoo origin. When the Portuguese seized this island, 1506, the chief monarch was the king of Cotta; but the central province of Candea, or Candi, afterwards appears as the leading principality. The Portuguese retained possession of the shores till about 1660, when they were expelled by the Dutch, between whom and the king of Candi a war arose, 1759, which terminated, 1766, by the submission of the latter, who surrendered all the coasts, and agreed to deliver yearly a quantity of cinnamon at a low rate. From the sordid domination of the Dutch it has recently passed under the more liberal banner of British power.

RELIGION. The religion of Ceylon is the ancient worship of Boodh, whose images appear with short and crisped hair, because it is fabled that he cut it with a golden sword, which produced that effect. The worship of Boodh is supposed to have originated in Ceylon; and thence to have spread to ancient Hindostan, to exterior India, Tibet, and even to China and Japan.

POPULATION. There does not yet appear to be any authentic intelligence concerning the population of Ceylon. This island is only important in a commercial view, from its celebrated products of cinnamon and gems. The harbour of Trincomali on the east is to the British of great consequence, because there is none on the eastern coast of Hindostan.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The natives of Ceylon, called Singalese, are not so black as those of Malabar, and have a few manners and customs distinct from other Hindoos. It is said that several brothers may have one wife in common, as in Tibet, but the polygamy of males is also allowed.

TOWNS. The native town Kandi, in the centre of the isle, seems to be of small size and consequence, and probably only distinguished by a palisade and a few temples.

The chief town of the Portuguese, Dutch and English possessions, is Colombo, a handsome place, and well fortified; the residence of the governor is elegant, but only consists of one floor, with a balcony to receive the cool air. At Colombo there is a printing press, where the Dutch published religious books.

The grand pearl fishery is conducted in the gulf of Manar, near Condatchey, which supplies inexhaustible stores of this valued production.

The harbour of Trincomali opens at the mouth of the Mowil Ganga, and was defended by a strong fortress.

But the southern side of Ceylon has been chiefly visited, abounding with gems and other rich productions. Matura was a Dutch factory where excellent kinds of cinnamon were collected, and varieties of precious stones abound in the vicinity. Galle is a handsome town strongly fortified, on the projecting angle of a rock.

MANUFACTURES, &c. There is little mention of any manufactures conducted in this island. The Dutch ships used to sail from Galle, laden with cinnamon, pepper, and other spices; with pearls and precious stones. The colombo wood, a bitter in recent use, found here, receives its name from the capital.

CLIMATE. The climate and seasons correspond in some degree with the adjacent continent; yet the exposure on all sides to the sea renders the air more cool and salubrious. High mountains, prodigious forests, full of aromatic trees and plants, and many pleasant rivers and streams diversify this country, which by the Hindoos is esteemed a second paradise. The vales are of a rich fat soil; and when cleared, amazingly fertile in rice, and other useful vegetables.

The mountain termed Adam's Peak is esteemed the highest in the island; and is in Sanscret called Salmala, Boodh being fabled to have ascended from it to heaven,

ANIMALS. The elephants of Ceylon are supposed only to yield in beauty to those of Siam, and chiefly frequent the southern part of the island. Buffaloes are also found in a wild state, while the tame are used in rural economy. The wild boars are numerous and extremely fierce; nor is the tyger unknown. Bears, Chakals, and many tribes of deer and monkeys, are also natives of Ceylon. The alligator, frequent in the Hindoo rivers, here sometimes reaches the length of eighteen feet. Among a vast variety of elegant birds, the peacock, that rich ornament of the Hindoo forests, swarms in this beautiful island.

The pearl fishery begins on the N. W. shore about the middle of February, and continues till about the middle of April. The village of Condatchey is then crowded with a mixture of thousands of people of different colours, countries, casts, and occupations; with numerous tents and huts, and bazars, or shops; while the sea presents many boats hastening to the banks, or returning with the expected riches. The divers are chiefly Christians or Moslems, who descend from five to ten fathoms, and remain under water about two minutes, each bringing up about a hundred oysters in his net.

OTHER ISLES. There are no other isles of any consequence near the coasts of Hindostan. Those called Lacadives and Maldives scarcely merit a particular description in a work of this general nature, and the Andaman and Nicobar isles properly belong to exterior India.

PERSIA.

DIVISIONS. THE ancient and powerful monarchy of Persia has, during the greater part of last century, been in a most distracted and divided condition, and the inhabitants, formerly renowned for wisdom and benignity, have been degraded by civil discord. This empire seems at length, in some degree, to have settled into two divisions, the eastern and the western; while the provinces near the Caspian, secured by mountains and fastnesses, have asserted a kind of independence.

NAME. The name of Persia spread from the province of *Pars* or *Fars* throughout this mighty empire: but it has been little known to the natives, who in ancient and modern times, have termed their country *Iran*.

EXTENT. From the mountains and deserts which, with the river Araba, constitute the eastern frontier towards Hindostan, Persia extends more than 1200 miles in length, to the western mountains of Elevend, and other limits of Asiatic Turkey. From south to north, from the deserts on the Indian sea, in all ages left to the Ichthyophagi, or wild tribes of Arabs who live on fish, to the other deserts near the sea of Aral are about 1000 British miles.

POPULATION. The original population of the mountainous country of Persia appears to have been indigenous, and in the opinion of all the most learned and skilful enquirers, this nation is Scythic or Gothic, and the very source and fountain of all the celebrated Scythian nations. While the southern Scythians of Iran gradually became a settled civilized people, the barbarous northern tribes spread around the Caspian and Euxine seas; and besides intermediate settlements detached victorious colo-

nies into the greater part of Europe many centuries before the Christian era. The ancient Medes and Parthians in the north of Persia appear however to have been of Sarmatic, or Slavonic origin, and to have spread from their native regions on the Volga, towards the Circassian mountains, along which ridge they passed to the south of the Caspian, the ancient scite of Media and Parthiene. The late very learned and excellent Sir William Jones, who did honour to his country and century, has repeatedly expressed his opinion that while the Parsi and Zend, or proper and peculiar Persian language, is of the same origin with the Gothic, Greek, and Latin; the Pehlavi is Assyrian or Chaldaic.

This ancient and extensive empire is divided into thirteen provinces, but our limits will not permit us to describe them particularly.

Besides these, and exclusive of Asiatic Turkey on the W. the ancient Persian empire comprised Bactriana or Balk, a kingdom of between 300 and 400 British miles square; Sogdiana, or the country on the river Sogod, which passes by modern Samarcand; the Sacæ and Caspii, probably the country of Shash; and Corasmia, now the desert space of Kharism, with the small territory of Khiva. These now form a part of independent Tartary.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The chief historical epochs of the Persian empire may be arranged in the following order:

1. The Sythians or barbarous inhabitants of Persia, according to the account of Justin, conquered a great part of Asia, and attacked Egypt about 1500 years before the reign of Ninus the founder of the Assyrian monarchy; that is, about 3660 years before the Christian era. The Egyptians, a people of Assyrian extract, as the Coptic language seems to evince, were from superior local advantages civilized at a more early period. The historical records contained in the scriptures attest the early civilization and ancient polity of the Egyptians. The first seat of the Persian monarchy was probably in the N. E. on the river Oxus; while the Assyrians possessed the Euphrates and the Tigris, and the S. W. of Persia.

The history of the Assyrian empire begins with Ninus, about 2160 years before Christ.

2. Zoroaster king of Bactriana is said to have been contemporary with Ninus, and to have invented magic ; that is, he was a wise man, who could produce uncommon effects by common causes.

3. Cyrus bounds what is called the Persian empire, 557 years before the Christian era, and soon after takes Babylon. This great event may be said only to have disclosed the Persians to the civilized nations of the west, for the native Persian histories ascend to Kayumarras, great grandson of Noah.

4. The overthrow of the first Persian empire by Alexander, B. C. 328, followed by the Greek monarchs of Syria, and the Grecian kingdom of Bactriana. It commenced about 248 years before Christ, and contained several satrapies, among which was Sogdiana.

5. The Parthian empire, which likewise began about 248 years B. C. This was a mere revival of the Persian empire under a new name.

6. Ardshur, or Artaxerxes, about the year 220 of the Christian era, restores the Persian line of kings ; this dynasty being called Sassanides.

7. The conquest of Persia by the Mahometans, A. D. 636. The native kingdom was revived in Corasan, A. D. 820 ; and after several revolutions resumed its former situation.

8. The accession of the house of Boniah, A. D. 934.

9. That of the house of Sefi or Sofi, A. D. 1501, whence the title of Sofis of Persia.

10. The reign of Shah Abas, surnamed the Great, A. D. 1586.

11. The brief conquest by the Afgans, 1722 : and consequent extinction of the house of Sefi, and elevation of Nadir, surnamed 'Thamas Kouli Khan, A. D. 1736. This ferocious chief was born in Corasan ; and after a reign of eleven years was slain, 20th June, 1747, near the city of Meshid, in the same country.

ANCIENT MONUMENTS. Of these the ruins of Persepolis are the most celebrated and remarkable. They are situated at the bottom of a mountain, fronting S. W. about forty miles to the north of Shiraz. The ruins exhibit inscriptions in a character not yet explained, the letters of which somewhat resemble nails, disposed in various directions.

MODERN HISTORY. Nadir Shah was succeeded by his nephew Adil; who, after a transitory reign, was followed by his brother Ibrahim. Meanwhile Timur Shah reigned in Cabul, Candahar, and the Persian provinces adjacent to Hindostan; and availing himself of the confusion in Persia, he besieged Meschid, which he took after a blockade of eight months.

This event was followed by extreme anarchy and confusion.

At length the government of western Persia was happily settled for a considerable space of time in the person of Kerim Khan. This great and mild prince at the time of Nadir's death was in the southern provinces, where he assumed the power at Shiraz, and was warmly supported by the inhabitants of that city. In reward he embellished this city and its environs with noble palaces, gardens and mosques, improved the highways, and rebuilt the caravanseras. His reign was established by the sword, but was afterwards unsullied by blood; and its chief peril arose from extreme mercy.

Another unhappy period of confusion followed the death of Kerim; his relation Zikea or Saki seized the government, which was contested, and he was massacred by his own troops at Yezdekast.

Abul Futtah was then proclaimed king by the soldiers, but Sadick, brother of Kerim, opposed his nephew's elevation, and marched from Bussora at the head of an army, dethroned the young monarch, and after depriving him of his sight, ordered him into strict confinement.

Ali Murad, then at Ispahan, rebelled against this usurper, and with an army of twelve thousand men besieged and took Shiraz, and put Sadick to death with three of his children.

Ali Murad was now regarded as peaceable possessor of the Persian throne; but an eunuch called Akau, assumed an independent sway in the Caspian province of Mazendran. When advancing against him, Ali Murad fell from his horse and instantly expired.

In 1791, Akau conquered the citie sof Kasbin and Tekheran or Tahiran.

After the death of Jaafar, a son of Ali Murad, Akau had no rival except Hidaet, khan of Ghilan, who was forced to fly from Rasht his place of residence, but was killed

near the port of Sinfil. In consequence of these events Akau became monarch of all western Persia; and being an eunuch, had nominated for his successor his nephew Baba Serdar.

EASTERN PERSIA. Having thus as briefly as possible discussed the recent history of western Persia, the eastern half yet remains; but the materials concerning the kingdom of Candahar, or the eastern half, are if possible, yet more scanty than those concerning the western half. Ahmed Abdalla, first king of Candahar, was originally the chief of an Afgan tribe, conquered by Nadir Shah, on whose death he erected a considerable kingdom in the eastern part of Persia, including most of the Indian provinces ceded by the Mogul to Nadir. He established the capital at Cabul, at a secure distance behind the mountains of Hindoo Koh.

Ahmed died about the year 1773, and was succeeded by Timur, who continued to reside at Cabul. The successor of Timur, was Zemaun, who probably still rules this extensive country, which has happily been free from the intestine commotions which have desolated western Persia. Since the great battle of Panniput, fought by Ahmed Abdalla against the Marattas 1761, the kingdom of Candahar seems to have remained in a pacific state, and the government is of applauded lenity.

The chief subjects of Zemaun are the Afgans, or people of the mountains between Persia and Hindostan, who may be considered as the founders of the empire; the others are Hindoos, Persians, and a few Tatars.

RELIGION. The religion of Persia is well known to be the Mahometan, which was introduced by the sword, and has been followed by its usual effects, the destruction and depopulation of the country. Yet the Persians adopt a milder system of this creed than is followed by the Turks and Arabs, whence they are regarded by the other Mahometans as hereticks.

Of the Parsees, or ancient worshippers of fire, there seem to be no remains in Persia, except perhaps a few visitors of the fiery eruptions of Naphtha near Baku, on the western shores of the Caspian. These innocent idolaters have been almost extirpated by Mahometan fanaticism. They worship the everlasting fire near Baku, as an emblem of Ormuzd, or the supreme ineffable Creator; while the

evil principle believed to have sprung from matter was styled Ahriman. They still abound near Bombay, where their singular mode of sepulture excites attention, as they expose their dead in inclosed areas to be devoured by birds of prey, a custom which has been propagated to some other oriental nations.

The Fakirs and Calenders of the Mahometan sect are wandering monks, or rather sturdy beggars; who, under the pretext of religion, compel the people to maintain them in idleness.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Persia, like that of all other oriental states, appears to have been always despotic; but its administration in eastern Persia, or the kingdom of Candahar, is represented as mild. The Khans are sometimes governors of provinces, sometimes only possessors of small districts, and pretend to hereditary succession, though liable to be forfeited or put to death by the arbitrary mandate of the sovereign. The great Khans are sometimes styled Beglerbegs; and in time of war Serdars, or generals. Those who command cities are commonly styled Darogas or governors.

POPULATION. The present state of the population of both the Persias cannot be justly estimated, but it perhaps little exceeds that of Asiatic Turkey, which has been computed at ten millions. The army of each about 100,000 men.

NAVY. The Persians were never a maritime people. The commerce on the Indian ocean, as well as on the Caspian sea, has been always chiefly conducted by the Armenians, a most industrious and respectable people: while the natives, with feudal pride, attend to their horses and the chase, and lead what is called the life of a gentleman, neither improving their own property nor the country in general.

REVENUES. The actual revenues of Persia it is impossible to estimate; but the ruinous state of the country must render it unproductive. The monarch of Candahar may perhaps draw from his various and extensive provinces about three millions sterling; while western Persia scarcely supplies two millions. Chardin says that the ancient revenue consisted partly in contributions in kind; Kurdistan, for instance, furnishing butter, while Georgia supplied female slaves; and partly arose from the royal do-

mains, with a third of metals, precious stones, and pearls ; and a few duties and taxes

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS. The political importance and relations of Persia, which once were so highly valued, are now greatly restricted. The western part is very little formidable even to the declining power of Turkey ; and the Russians seem to entertain no desire of extending their conquests that way ; this unhappy security being in fact one grand cause of the civil anarchy.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The Persians still pride themselves in universal politeness, and are hospitable, not however without the expectation of presents in return. They seem to consider themselves as more wise and sagacious than other nations, yet are passionate. Of a sanguine temperament, both rich and poor are generally gay : and immoderate mirth will succeed the most violent quarrels. They are extremely attached to the fair sex, and not averse to wine. The general complexion is fair, somewhat tinged with olive : but those in the south about Shiraz, of Candahar, and the provinces towards India are of a dark brown. They are commonly fat, with black hair, high forehead, aquiline nose, full cheeks, and a large chin, the form of the countenance being frequently oval. The men are generally strong and robust, and inclined to martial exercises, but they are particularly subject to disorders of the eyes. They generally shave the head, and wear high crimson bonnets ; but the beard is sacred, and tended with great care. They often wear three or four light dresses, one above the other, fastened with a belt and sash ; and they are fond of large cloaks of thick cloth. The women wrap around their heads pieces of silk of different colours ; and their robes are rather shorter than those of the men. The Persians eat twice or thrice a day, dining about noon, but the chief repast is the supper, as with the ancient Greeks and Romans. The most usual dish is boiled rice variously prepared. The meat is boiled to excess, and the meal is enlarged with pot-herbs, roots, and fruits, cakes, hard eggs, and above all sweetmeats, of which they are extremely fond. They are remarkable for cleanliness, both in their persons and habitations.

Marriages are conducted by female mediation ; and the pomp and ceremonies somewhat resemble the Russian. Polygamy is allowed ; but the first married is the chief

wife. The tombs of the rich are often grand, as are the cenotaphs of the twelve Imams, or vicars of the prophet.

LANGUAGE. The language of Persia is perhaps the most celebrated of all the Oriental tongues, for strength, beauty, and melody. The excellent work of Sir William Jones on oriental poetry, discloses part of the treasures to be found in this language. In general the Persian literature approaches nearer to the European, in solid good sense, and clearness of thought and expression, than that of any other Asiatic nation.

Hafiz is the Anacreon of the east, and his tomb is venerated in the vicinity of Shiraz, being itself the chosen shrine of parties of pleasure, who proceed thither to enjoy the delicious situation, and offer libations of the rich Shirazian wine to the memory of their favourite bard, a splendid copy of whose works is chained to his monument. But the sciences in general are little cultivated by the Persians, who are lost in abject superstition, and fond believers in astrology. Their education is chiefly military.

CITIES. The capital city of Modern Persia is Ispahan. Including the suburbs its circuit is computed by Chardin at about twenty-four miles, and the inhabitants at 600,000. It stands on the small river Zenderud. The walls are of earth and ill repaired, with eight gates, and the streets narrow, devious, and badly paved. But the royal square and its grand market, the palace of the Sefi, and those of the Grandees, the mosques, the public baths, and other edifices, are for the most part splendid. The suburb of Iulfa, or Yulfa, is very large, and possessed by the Armenians. This capital was so much reduced when Mr. Hanway visited it, that not above five thousand houses were inhabited.

The second city, at least in fame, is Shiraz, which has been recently visited and described. This capital of Farsistan, or Persia, is situated in a fertile valley, about twenty-six miles in length, and twelve in breadth, bounded on all sides by lofty mountains: the circuit of the city is about four miles, surrounded with a wall twenty five feet high, and ten thick, with round towers at the distance of eighty paces. The citadel is built of brick; and before it is a great square, with a park of miserable artillery. The mosk of the late Kerim is splendid but unfinished. Many summer houses, with gardens, in the vicinity of Shiraz, were built

by the late regent Kerim, the plantations being avenues of cypress and sycamore, leading to parterres of flowers, and refreshed with fountains. The neighbouring fields are fertile in rice, wheat and barley, the harvest beginning in May, and ending in the middle of July. Provisions are cheap, and the mutton excellent. The famous horses of Fars now yield greatly to those of Dush Tistan, a province to the S. W. At Shiraz there is a glass manufactory, but woollen goods and silks are brought from Yezd and Kerman, copper from Tauriz, sword-blades from Kom. Abu Shehar, or Busheer, supplies Indian articles. The climate of this celebrated city is delicious, particularly in the spring, when numerous flowers perfume the air; and the Boolbul, or oriental nightingale, the goldfinch, linnet, and other warblers, delight the ear.

Having thus briefly described the two most celebrated cities, we can give very little more than the names and population of the others. Tefliz, the capital of Georgia, is a large and populous town, but meanly built. The chief trade is in furs, sent to Turkey and the south of Persia. the present circuit is about two English miles, and it is supposed to contain 20,000 inhabitants, more than half being Armenians.

Derbent was formerly a place of strength on the Caspian sea, but was taken by Peter the Great of Russia, and afterwards by Catharine II. in 1780. It has little commerce, except inland with Ghilan, principally in saffron.

Westward on the Turkish frontier, stands the city of Erivan, of considerable extent, but the houses are meanly built, like most of those in Persia. Provisions are plentiful, and good wine is produced in the neighbourhood.

The province of Aderbijan contains few places of note except Tebriz, or Tauriz, a considerable city, whose bazars or market places, and other public edifices, are grand and spacious; and it is said that the great square has held thirty thousand men drawn up in order of battle.

The Caspian provinces of Ghilan and Mazendran present their capitals, Rasht and Sari. The former is the seat of considerable commerce, and the number of houses may amount to two thousand. The palace of the Khan was composed of several large pavillions, arranged in the form of a square, and communicating with each other by handsome galleries. In the midst was a garden with fountains,

and behind was the haram with another garden, the apartments being richly furnished with tapestry, mirrors, and other elegant articles.

Kom, or Khums, was visited by Chardin in the seventeenth century: he represents it as a considerable city; the houses were computed at fifteen thousand; and the chief manufactures were white earthen ware, soap, and sword-blades. Here are the superb tombs of Sefi I. and Abas II.

Towards the Turkish frontier, one of the largest rivers of Persia, the Ahwaz, or ancient Choaspes, flows into the Tigris; but though the ancient Susa decorated its banks, the modern towns of Kiab and Awaz are of small account.

The celebrated Persian gulph has been always more remarkable for the factories of foreigners, than for native establishments. Bander Abassi, now Gombroom, was a port opposite to the isle of Ormus. The trade, once considerable, is now greatly declined. The English staple is Bussora.

In the isle of Ormus was formerly a celebrated mart of Portuguese trade; but they were expelled by Abas the Great, with the assistance of the English, A. D. 1622.

In passing to the eastern division, or kingdom of Kandahar, it may be proper to observe that Cabul, the metropolis, is situated within the limits of Hindostan, and has been mentioned.

The dominion of Zemaun Shah comprises a considerable portion of Corasan. Herat, once the chief city, stands on a spacious plain intersected with many rivulets, which, with the bridges, villages, and plantations, delight the traveller, fatigued in passing the eastern desert of Afghanistan, or the country of the Afgans. This city was the capital of Corasan, till the first Sefi of Persia transferred this rank to the northern city of Meshid, which contained the tomb of Muza, his supposed ancestor, and one of the twelve great Imams of Persia.

EDIFICES. In the recent desolation of the country many of the most splendid edifices are become ruinous; the late Kerim however decorated Shiraz with many beautiful buildings. He also improved the roads in the vicinity; but in Persia, which may be called a country of mountains, the roads are not only difficult, but kept in bad repair.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The manufactures and commerce of this great country may be said to be annihilated, though a few carpets still reach Europe at extravagant prices. Even the trade with the Russians on the Caspian is of small account.

That intelligent but prolific traveller, Chardin, has given an ample view of the Persian manufactures and commerce in the seventeenth century. Embroidery was carried to the greatest perfection, in cloth, silk, and leather. Earthenware was made throughout Persia; the best of which equalled the Chinese porcelain in fineness and transparency: and the fabric was so hard as to produce lasting mortars for grinding various substances. The bows of Persia were the most esteemed of all in the east, and the sabres finely damasked, in a manner which Chardin thinks inimitable in Europe. Their razors, and other works in steel, were also laudable; and they excelled in cutting precious stones, and dyeing bright and lasting colours. Their carpets, their cotton and woollen cloths, and those made of goats' and camels' hair, with their silks, brocades, and velvets, were superior manufactures. Such were formerly the manufactures and commerce of this extensive country, which are now almost annihilated.

CLIMATE. Persia which lies between the latitudes of 25° and 44° N. has been said to be a country of three climates; but even in the south the high mountains contribute to allay the extreme heat. The northern provinces on the Caspian are comparatively cold and moist. In the centre of the kingdom the winter begins in November, and continues till March, commonly severe, with ice and snow. From March to May high winds are frequent; but thence to September the air is serene, refreshed by breezes in the night. From September to November the winds again prevail. In the centre and south the air is generally dry, thunder or lightning are uncommon, but hail is often destructive in the spring. Near the Persian gulf the hot wind called Samuel sometimes suffocates the unwary traveller.

Persia may be called a country of mountains; and where great plains occur they are generally desert. The most remarkable feature of the country is the want of rivers. Except in the north, and some parts of the western mountains, even trees are uncommon,

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil in the central and southern provinces may be regarded as unfertile. Hence the chief industry of the Persian farmer is employed in watering his lands. Those in the north are sufficiently rich and fertile.

The most common grain of Persia is wheat, which is excellent; but rice is a more universal aliment. Barley and millet are also sown. The plough is small, and the ground merely scratched. After which the spade is also used, to form the ground into squares, with ledges or little banks to retain the water. The dung is chiefly human, and that of pigeons mingled with earth, and preserved for two years to abate its heat.

RIVERS. The river of Ahwaz rises in the mountains of Elwend, and pursues a southern course till it enters the estuary of the Tigris and Euphrates conjoined. This seems to be the Gyndes of Herodotus, and is one of the most considerable in Persia.

From the range of mountains to the N. E. several rivers of short course fall into the Persian gulph, one of the most considerable being the Rud or Divrud, which joins the mouth of that gulph. The rivers of Mekran are of more considerable course, as the Krenk and Mekshid, which, conjoined, form the river of Mend, so called from a town by which it passes.

To the W. the rivers of Tedjen or Tedyen, the ancient Ochus, flows into the Caspian; which also receives many small streams from the mountains of Mazendran. The Kizel Ozen, or Seefid Rud (the Mardus of antiquity) rises on the confines of Turkey, and falls into the Caspian below Langorod.

Farther to the N. the large river Aras, the ancient Araxes, falls into the Kur or Cyrus, both rising in the Caucasian mountains, and pursuing a course of extreme rapidity.

The central rivers of Persia remain to be mentioned, most of which are soon lost in sandy deserts, but deserve attention from their historical celebrity. The Zenderud rises in the western chain of Elwend, and passes by Is-pahan.

But the most important river in this quarter is that which passes between Shiraz and Istakar, or the celebrated ruins of Persepolis, called the Bundamir, and supposed to be the ancient Araxes. This celebrated river flows into a salt

lake called Baktagan, and which also receives a considerable stream from the N. E. called the Kuren.

The largest and most remarkable inland river is the Hindend, of the province of Segistan, which rises from two widely separated sources. These streams join not far to the E. of Bost, whence the river pursues a westerly course, and divides into many branches, which are lost in the central deserts of Persia.

LAKES. Among the lakes of Persia, the most considerable beyond all comparison is the Aria Palus of antiquity. This large lake is in the western part of the province of Segistan, and the length is thirty leagues, by a day's journey in breadth; the water is fresh and full of fish.

The salt lake of Baktagan, about fifty miles E. of Shiraz, is represented in the maps as about forty B. miles in length, and the breadth about ten.

Far to the N. W. appears the large lake of Urmia, said to be about fifty B. miles in length, by about half the breadth.

MOUNTAINS. The first object, even in a short account of the Persian mountains, must be to trace the direction of the chief chains. It seems that the Caucasian ridge extends to the west of Ghilan and south of Mazendran, till it expire in Corasan, on the S. E. of the Caspian sea.

The southernmost chain is described as running parallel with the Persian gulph N. W. and S. E. at about the distance of 50 B. miles.

A third range of mountains of very great height, seems to continue in the same direction with this last, to the S. of the lake of Urmia, where it is connected with the Caucasian ridge. This is the grandest range of mountains in Persia.

A parallel ridge on the W. called by the Turks Aiagha Tag, separates Assyria from Media. Mount Ararat is represented as standing solitary in the midst of a wide plain, but might rather be classed with the range of Caucasus.

Hetzardara, or the thousand mountains, form a branch on the north of Fars, and one part of it, which gives rise to the river of Ispahan, is called Koh Zerdeh.

A low range, called Meder by D'Anville, passes N. E. through the heart of Kerman; while that country is divided from Mekran by a range in the same direction, called by D'Anville Kefez.

Farther to the N. the mountains of Wulli extend from the neighbourhood of Shatzan across to the lake of Vachind, and expire in the great desert to the S. of Zarang.

DESERTS. The deserts must not be passed in complete silence, though few words may suffice. On the east of Tigris lat. 33° a considerable desert commences, and extends to the N. of Skuster. This desert may be about 140 B. miles in length, E. to W. and the breadth about 80. It is now chiefly possessed by the wandering tribes of Arabs, called Beni Kiab.

The Great Saline Desert extends from the neighbourhood of Kom to that of the sea of Zurra, in a line from E. to W. of about 400 B. miles ; the breadth from N. to S. may be 250 ; but in the latter quarter it may be said to join with the great desert of Kerman, which extends about 350 miles. These two extensive deserts may thus be considered as stretching N. W. and S. E. for a space of about 700 miles, by a medial breadth of about 200 (even not including in the length other 200 miles of the desert of Mekran ;) thus intersecting this wide empire into two nearly equal portions, as before explained. This vast extent is impregnated with nitre and other salts, which taint the neighbouring lakes and rivers. In the south of Mekran and towards the Indus are other deserts of great extent.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. On the mountainous ridges adjoining the Caspian are found the cypress, the cedar, and several other kinds of pines, while the lower hills and scars of rocks are shaded and adorned with lime trees, oak, acacias, chesnuts and poplars ; the sumach, whose astringent wood is so essential to the arts of dyeing and tanning, grows here in vast abundance ; and the manna ash tree is scarcely less common. The most esteemed of the cultivated fruits of Europe are truly indigenous in Persia, and have probably hence been diffused over the whole west. These are the fig, the pomegranate, the mulberry, the almond, peach, and apricot. Orange trees also of an enormous size, and apparently wild, are met with in the sheltered parts of the mountains ; and the deep warm sand on the shore of the Caspian is peculiarly favourable to the culture of the citron and the liquorice. The vine grows here in great luxuriance, and farther to the south both cotton and sugar are articles of common cultivation.

According to Chardin, the Persian horses are the most beautiful even in the East. The Persian steeds are rather taller than the saddle horses in England: the head small, the legs delicate, and the body well proportioned; of a mild disposition, very laborious, lively and swift. Mules are also in considerable request; and the ass resembles the European. The camel is also common. The Persian cattle resemble the European, except towards Hindostan, where they are marked by the hunch on the shoulders. Swine are scarce, save in the N. W. provinces. The large tailed sheep are more common, that appendage sometimes weighs more than thirty pounds, enlarging at the bottom in the form of a heart. The flocks are most numerous in the northern provinces of Erivan. The few forests contain abundance of deer and antelopes; while the mountains present wild goats. Hares are common in the numerous wastes. The ferocious animals are chiefly concealed in the forests, as the bear and boar, the lion in the western parts, with the leopard, and according to some accounts, the small or common tyger. The wild ass is found in the central deserts. Pigeons are particularly numerous; and the partridges are uncommonly large and excellent. The boolbul, or oriental nightingale, enlivens the spring with its varied song. The Persians have been long accustomed to tame beasts of prey, so as to hunt with leopards, panthers, and ounces.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of this extensive country seems neither various nor important, the metals in general being of an inferior quality.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. Among the chief natural curiosities must be named the fountains of naphtha, or pure rock oil, in the neighbourhood of Baku, on the western coast of the Caspian, particularly in the adjoining promontory of Ashberon. The land is dry and rocky, and there are several small ancient temples, in one of which, near the altar, a large hollow cane is fixed in the ground, and from the end issues a blue flame, seemingly more pure and gentle than that produced by ardent spirits. From a horizontal gap in an adjoining rock there also issues a similar flame.

“The earth round the place for above two miles has this surprising property, that, by taking two or three inches of the surface, and applying a live coal, the part which is so uncovered immediately takes fire, almost before the coal

touches the earth : the flame makes the soil hot, but does not consume it, nor affect what is near it with any degree of heat.

“ If a cane or tube, even of paper, be set about two inches in the ground, confined and close with the earth below, and the top of it touched with a live coal and blown upon, immediately a flame issues, without hurting either the cane or paper, provided the edges be covered with clay ; and this method they use for light in their houses, which have only the earth for the floor : three or four of these lighted canes will boil water in a pot, and thus they dress their victuals. The flame may be extinguished in the same manner as that of spirits of wine.”

INDEPENDENT TATARY.

ALTHOUGH the descriptions already given in this volume of Asiatic Russia and the Chinese empire, comprize the far greater part of what geographers by a vague term denominate Tatar; yet the title of Independent Tatar becomes unexceptionable, when confined to the bounds of the present description, for the Uzbeks and Kirguses are of undoubted Tatar origin; and their country must still be regarded as independent of the great neighbouring powers, China, Russia, and Persia.

EXTENT. The extent of territory possessed by these tribes, may be measured from the Caspian sea to the mountains of Belur, a space of not less than 370 B. miles. From the mountains of Gaur in the south to the Russian boundaries on the north of the desert of Issim, may be near 1500 B. miles; but of this length a great part is desert.

TOWNS. The chief towns of this extensive region, by all accounts, are Chashgar and Yarcand, followed towards the N. E. by Axu or Aksu; Chialish, also called Yulduz, and by the Turks Karashar or the black city; and Turfan, Hami or Camil, with its surrounding villages, is rather considered as a detached province, for some ages under the protection of China.

RELIGION. The prevailing religion is the Mahometan, for the Kalmuk conquerors, though they retained their idolatry, were tolerant to others.

The population cannot be extensive, and is supposed chiefly to consist of original Bucharrians, who are described as of a swarthy complexion, though some be very fair, and of elegant forms. They are said to be polite and benevo-

lent, and their language is probably that called the Zagathian, which is the same with the Turkish, that speech having supplanted their native tongue; for that the chief population is original seems to be allowed, though there be a great mixture of Tatars, or Turcomans, and a few Kalmuks. The dress of the men does not reach below the calf of the leg, with girdles like the Polish. The female raiment is similar, with long ear-rings like those of Tibet: the hair is also worn in very long tresses, decorated with ribbons. They tinge their nails with henna. Both sexes wear trowsers, with light boots of Russia leather. The head-dress resembles the Turkish. The houses are generally of stone, decorated with some Chinese articles. They are cleanly in their food, which often consists of minced meat; and, like the Russians, they preserve their victuals frozen for a considerable time. Tea is the general drink. The wives are purchased; and the ceremonies of marriage, &c. differ little from those of other Mahometans, the mullahs or priests having great influence. They have small copper coins; but weigh gold and silver like the Chinese, with whom they maintained a considerable commerce before the Kalmuk invasion, and which is now probably more productive than ever by their union under the same sovereign. They are not warlike; but use the lance, sabre, and bow, while the rich have coats of mail. The country is very productive of many kinds of fruits, and particularly wine. They are said to have many mines of gold and silver. On the melting of the snows abundance of gold is found in the torrents, which they carry to China, and even to Tobolsk in Siberia. Precious stones, and even diamonds are also found; and one of the products is musk, probably from the southern mountains near Tibet, in which last country the animal abounds. In contradiction to the usual course of nature, the southern part bordering on the vast Alps of Tibet is colder than the northern, which is protected by the inferior ridge of Alak. As the dress is chiefly cotton it is probable that the plant abounds in the country.

KIRGUSES. About one half of Independent Tatar is occupied by the Kirguses in the north, a people of undoubted Tataric origin, and the Uzbeks in the South.

STEPP OF ISSIM. The great stepp, or desert of Issim, divides these Kirguses from Siberia: but this extensive plain must not however be regarded as a mere de-

sert, as it is said that many ancient tombs occur in its wide expanse, as well as in the Barabianian stepp, between the Irkish, and the Orb, which last consists of a tolerable soil, and presents several forests of birch.

The Kirguses are supposed to be so called from the founder of their hord; and have from time immemorial been here classed under three divisions of Great, Middle, and Lesser, and are supposed to compose a population of about 720,000 souls.

MANNERS, &c. The Kirguses have gradually moved from the east towards the west. Their tents are of a kind of felt; their drink kumiss, made of acidulated mare's milk. The Great Hord is considered as the source of the two others. They lead a wandering life. Each hord has its particular Khan. Their features are Tataric, with the flat nose and small eyes; but not oblique like those of the Monguls and Chinese. These have horses, camels, cattle, sheep, and goats. It was asserted that some individuals in the Middle hord had 10,000 horses, 300 camels, 3 or 4000 cattle, 20,000 sheep, and more than 2000 goats. Their dromedaries furnish a considerable quantity of woolly hair, which is sold to the Russians and Bucharians, being annually clipped like that of sheep. Their chief food is mutton, and so exquisite is the lamb that it is sent from Orenburg to Petersburg for the tables of the palace. The lamb skins are the most celebrated after those of Bucharina, being damasked as it were by cloathing the little animal in coarse linen, but the wool of the sheep is coarse. The stepps supply them with objects of the chase, wolves, foxes, badgers, antelopes, ermines, weazles, marmots, &c. In the southern and eastern mountains are found wild sheep, the ox of Tibet, which seems to delight in snowy Alps; with chamois, chacals, tigers and wild asses.

As the Kirgusians regard each other as brethren, their slaves are captives whom they take in their incursions. Their dress is the common Tataric. with large trowsers and pointed boots. The ladies ornament their heads with the necks of herons, disposed like horns.

TRADE. The Kirgusians carry on some trade with Russia. Sheep, to the amount of 150,000 are annually brought to Orenburg; with horses, cattle, lamb-skins, camels wool, and camlets. In return they take manufactured articles, chiefly clothes and furniture. From Bucharina,

Khiva, and Tashkund, they receive arms and coats of mail. They celebrate an annual festival in honour of the dead, and are addicted to sorceries and other idle superstitions.

HISTORY. Even this barren region, now inhabited by the Kirguses, has been the scene of considerable events. However degraded at present, it has been held by successive nations of high repute, from the Massagetæ of early times to the devastating Turks. These last imparted the name of Turkistan, having migrated from the mountains of Bogdo, and in the sixth century spread to the Caspian; while the Eygurs seem to have succeeded them in their original seats. As the Turks founded their first western settlements in the regions now held by the Kirguses, they thence received the name of Turkistan. From this centre of their power issued those Turkish armies, which have changed the destinies of so many nations. The Turks and Huns may be considered as one and the same Tataric race, totally unknown to Europeans till the appearance of the latter. The Huns, who appeared about A. D. 375, by their peculiar features impressed the writers of the time as a new and unknown race, having seemingly passed in one course of depredation from Asia to Europe; but the Turks, though originally the same people, perhaps warned by the fate of their brethren, made a slow and gradual progress; and appear to have been mingled by marriages and conquests with the Slavonic and Gothic tribes, on the N. and E. of the Caspian. Such was the origin of the name of Turkistan; from which the Turks spread desolation over the most beautiful countries of the east, and even threatened the liberties of Europe.

KHARISM. The country of Kharism extends from the Gihon or Amu to the Caspian sea, bounded on the N. and S. by wide deserts, the chief town being now Khiva, but anciently Urghez. This country is about 350 British miles in length and breadth, and in the time of Zingis was a powerful kingdom.

At present this state is almost restricted to the district of Khiva, the circuit of which may be performed on horseback in three days; but there are five walled cities, or rather towns, within half a day's journey of each other. "The khan is absolute, and entirely independent of any other power, except the Mulla Bashi, or high priest, by whom he is controlled. The inhabitants differ very little

from the Kirguses ; the latter live in tents, whilst the others inhabit cities and villages. Their only trade is with Bokhara and Persia, whither they carry cattle, furs, and hides, all which they have from the Kirguses and Turkoman Tatars. The place itself produces little more than cotton, lamb furs of a very mean quality, and a small quantity of raw silk, some of which they manufacture." The town of Khiva stands on a rising ground, with three gates, and a strong wall of earth, very thick, and much higher than the houses : there are turrets at small distances, and a broad deep ditch full of water. It occupies a considerable space, and commands a pleasant prospect of the adjacent plains, which the industry of the inhabitants has rendered very fertile ; but the houses are low, mostly built with mud, the roofs flat, and covered with earth.

As the merchants of Khiva brought gold and gems to Astrakan, probably from the two Bucharías, an idea was suggested to Peter the Great that these precious products were found in Kharism, and he in consequence attempted a settlement. But the Russians, to the number of 3000, advancing under the command of a Circassin prince called Beckawitz, towards Khiva, were all cut off by the Uzbeks.

GREAT BUCHARIA. By far the most important part of Independent Tatarý is comprised under the name of Great Bucharía. It is part of the Touran of the ancient Persians, and was chiefly known to the Greeks and Romans by the names of Sogdiana and Bactriana.

It extends more than 700 British miles in length from N. to S. by a medial breadth of about 350, thus rather exceeding Great Britain in size. The northern boundary appears to be the mountains of Argun. On the western side the river Amu and deserts divide Bucharía from Kharizm and Corasan : while on the S. and E. the mountains of Gaur, or Paropamisus, the Hindoo Koh, and the chain of Belur, are perpetual barriers.

HISTORY. The original population of this country was Scythian, like that of Persia ; and it was once perhaps the seat and source of the most ancient Persian monarchy. This region was not much known till after the Mahometan conquest of Persia in the seventh century. In 1494 Sultan Baber, a descendant of Timur, was with his Monguls expelled from Great Bucharía ; and proceeding into Hindostan, there founded the Mogul power. The Tatarí-

an victors, called Uzbeks, established a powerful monarchy in Bucharïa ; and successive khans held the sceptre from 1494 to 1658, soon after which period this great and fertile country appears to have been divided into several dominations, under several khans. In the deficiency of recent accounts, it can only be conjectured that the chief powers of this country are the khan of Balk in the S. and of Samarcand in the N.

RELIGION, &c. The religion of the Uzbeks and Bucharians is the Mahometan, and the government of the khans is despotic. There is no precise evidence of the state of the population, which consists of the Tatars and of the Bucharians. It is probable that upon an emergency an army might be mustered of 100,000 irregular troops. There is no statement of the annual revenue of these fertile provinces : it can hardly exceed half a million sterling.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the Uzbeks are similar to those of the other Tatars : but they are supposed to be the most spirited and industrious of these barbarians. Though many reside in tents in the summer, yet in winter they inhabit the towns and villages. Those of Balk are the most civilized, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindostan. The native Bucharians, or Tajiks, are comparatively fair ; and correspond in elegance of form and features, with those of Little Bucharïa, whom they also resemble in the mode of dress. The Bucharians never bear arms. The Uzbeks, on the contrary, are no strangers to the use of the musket ; and it is said that even their women sometimes attend their husbands to the field. The language of the Bucharians has never been investigated, though it be probably Persian, like their physiognomy, but intermingled with Turkish Mongolian, and even Hindoo terms.

CITIES. The chief city of Great Bucharïa is Samarcand, on the southern bank of the river Sogd.

Of this celebrated capital there is no recent account, but it seems greatly to have declined since the time of Timur. Towards the beginning of the last century, it was fortified with ramparts of turf, the houses being mostly of hardened clay, though some were of stone, from quarries in the neighbourhood. The khan of Great Bucharïa commonly encamped in the adjacent meadows, the castle being almost ruinous.

Bokhara, on the same river, has repeatedly contested the metropolitan dignity with Samarcand. When visited by the English agents in 1741, it was a large and populous city, subject to its khan; the houses of clay, but the numerous mosques of brick. The citizens manufactured soap and calico; and the chief products were cotton, rice and cattle. From the Kalmuks they received rhubarb and musk; and from Badakshan precious stones.

Balk is a distinguished city on the river Dehash, in the beginning of the last century subject to its particular khan of the Uzbeks; being then the most considerable of all their cities, large and populous with houses of brick or stone; while the castle or palace consisted almost entirely of marble from the neighbouring mountains. The people were the most civilized of all the Tatars, and beautiful silks were prepared from the product of the country: it being the chief seat of the trade between Bucharía and Hindostan.

Anderab is the chief city of Tokarestan; in the neighbourhood of which were rich quarries of lapis lazuli, a substance with which Great Bucharía seems chiefly to have supplied the ancient and modern world.

Badakshan, on the river Amu, in the last century was small, but well built and populous; and its inhabitants were enriched by the gold, silver, and rubies found in the neighbourhood.

COMMERCE. Besides the caravans to Persia, Hindostan, and China, some trade is carried on with the Russians, the Bucharian merchants not only furnishing their own products but others from the eastern countries to which they trade.

CLIMATE. The climate in general appears to be excellent, the heat even of the southern provinces being tempered by the high mountains capped with perpetual snow. Though there are numerous rivers, hills, and mountains, there seems to be a deficiency of wood; but near the rivers the soil is very productive, and the grass sometimes exceeds the height of a man.

RIVERS. The chief rivers of Independent Tatarý are the Amu and the Sirr, or river Shash.

The Amu rises in the mountains of Belur, more than 200 British miles N. E. from Badakshan, and falls into the sea of Aral, after a course of probably not less than 900 B. miles.

The Sirr, or river of Shash, also rises in the mountains of Belur, and falls into the eastern side of the sea of Aral, after a course of about 550 B. miles.

In the country possessed by the Three Hords of Kirguses are also other considerable streams, now obscure, but remarkable in the history of Zingis and his successors, when directing their conquests to the N. of the Caspian, they subdued the greater part of European Russia.

LAKES. The most considerable lake is the sea of Aral; next the lake Tengis, which latter is near 140 B. miles in length, by half that breadth.

MOUNTAINS. The principal range of mountains is that of Belur, which, according to all accounts, is a great alpine chain, covered with perpetual snow. The chief branches proceed towards the W. for on the E. is the high central plain of Asia, full of deserts, as if nature had here performed her earliest operations, when this first and greatest continent emerged from the primeval waters. Except in some few places, sheltered from the N. and E. this extensive elevation is exposed to extreme cold, the reverse of the deserts of Africa.

The chain of Belur, which was the ancient Imaus, proceeds nearly N. and S. and is continued by the mountains of Alak on the N. of Little Bucharia, which join the great Bogdo, the highest mountain in central Asia. On the S. the Belur seems more intimately connected with the Hindoo Koh than with the northern ridges of Tibet.

MINERALS. The alpine heights in the S. E. contain gold, silver, and a peculiar production, the balay, or pale rose-coloured ruby. In the tenth century, Fergana produced sal ammoniac, vitriol, iron, copper, gold, turkoises, and quicksilver. In the mountain of Zarka there were springs of naphtha and bitumen, and "a stone that takes fire and burns," which must imply coal. The venerable father of Arabian geography, Ebn Haukal, has compensated for the penury of his information respecting natural history, by an animated character of the people, which may be here introduced as a relief from the dryness of some of the details.

"Such are the generosity and liberality of the inhabitants, that no one turns aside from the rites of hospitality; so that a person contemplating them in this light, would imagine *that all the families of the land were but one house.*

When a traveller arrives there every person endeavours to attract him to himself, that he may have opportunities of performing kind offices for the stranger : and the best proof of their hospitable and generous disposition is, that every peasant, though possessing but a bare sufficiency, allots a portion of his cottage for the reception of a guest. On the arrival of a stranger they contend one with another for the pleasure of taking him to their home, and entertaining him. Thus, in acts of hospitality they expend their incomes. I happened once to be in Soghd, and there I saw a certain palace, or great building, the doors of which were fastened back with nails against the walls. I asked the reason of this, and they informed me that it was an hundred years and more since those doors had been shut, all that time they had continued open, day and night, strangers might arrive there at the most unseasonable hours, or in any numbers, for the master of the house had provided every thing necessary both for the men and for their beasts : and he appeared with a delighted and joyful countenance when the guests tarried a while."

ARABIA.

THE last remaining country of the Asiatic continent is Arabia, a region more highly celebrated than precisely known. By the ancients it was divided into three unequal portions ; Petræa, or the Stoney, a small province on the N. of the Red sea, between Egypt and Palestine, so called from its bare granitic rocks and mountains, the most remarkable of which is Sinai : Arabia Deserta was the eastern part, so far as known to the ancients ; while Arabia the Happy comprised the S. W. on the shores of the Red sea.

BOUNDARIES. The boundaries on the W. and S. are marked by the Red sea, or Arabian gulf, and the Indian ocean ; while the Persian gulf extends a considerable way on the E. and this boundary is considered as continued by the deserts to the west of the Euphrates. The northern limits rise to an angle about an hundred miles to the E. of Palmyra. Thence the line proceeds S. W. to the S. E. angle of the Mediterranean, a northern boundary of Arabia Petræa.

From the cape of Babelmandeb to the extreme angle on the Euphrates, the length is not less than 1800 B. miles ; while the medial breadth may be about 800.

POPULATION. The population is original and indigenous, the Arabians being the same race with the Assyrians of remote antiquity, the probable fathers of the Syrians, Egyptians and Abyssinians, whose languages are intimately allied, as is that of the Hebrews ; being totally different from that of the Persians. By all accounts, sacred and profane, the Assyrians were the most ancient civilized and commercial people. The merchants of Tyre had explored the shores of Britain, while the Chinese seem not to

have discovered those of Japan. This early civilization will excite the less surprise, when it is considered that even the modern Arabians have never been subdued by any invader, and in comparatively modern times they have vindicated the fame of their ancient pre-eminence by giving religion and laws to half of Asia and Africa, and a great part of Europe. The Arabian chalifs in Spain, Africa, and Egypt, as well as at Bagdad, cultivated the arts and sciences ; and shewed a great superiority to the barbarous powers of Europe at that period.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The history of interior Arabia is obscure, till the time of Mahomet ; and their traditional songs chiefly celebrate Antar, a hero renowned like the Rustan of the Persians. Arabia never appears to have been united, either in a republic, or under one monarch, except in the time of Mahomet and his successors. The kingdom of Yemen, or the S. W. extremity, has been repeatedly subdued by the Abyssinians, the Persians, the Sultans of Egypt, and the Turks ; being separated from the interior by deserts, as well as mountains : but the wide inland countries of Neged have defied all invasion, and, far from being conquered, are almost unknown. Yet Niebuhr informs us that according to Arabian traditions the whole country was subject in the earliest times to a race of monarchs called Tobba, like the Pharaohs of Egypt, worshippers of fire from the country of Samarcand, who vanquished Arabia, and introduced civilization.

RELIGION. Before the time of Mahomet human sacrifices appear to have been offered by the natives of this country, as well as by their brethren the Syrians and Carthaginians. Sabianism afterwards spread from Chaldea. Nor was the Christian religion unknown before the appearance of Mahomet. About the middle of last century a Sheik of Yemen, called Mekkrami, established a kind of new sect of Mahometanism : and about the same period what may be called a new religion was commenced in the province El Ared, by Abdul Wahheb ; which by the latest accounts begins to make considerable progress under his successors. He is said to have taught that God alone should be adored and invocated : while the mention of Mahomet or any other prophet, he considered as approaching to idolatry.

GOVERNMENT. This country is divided among numerous Imams and Sheiks. The title of *Imam* implying Vicar, that is of Mahomet, is ecclesiastic ; and implies a common priest, while the Mulla presides in a court of justice, and is considered as synonymous with *Chalif*, and *Emir El Mumenin*, or Prince of the faithful. The inferior governments are conducted by Sheiks, a term merely implying old men, and seems rarely mingled with the ecclesiastic character.

The throne of Yemen is hereditary ; and the Imam, or Emir acknowledges no superior in spiritual or temporal affairs. He possesses the prerogative of peace and war ; but cannot be called despotic, as he cannot deprive even a Jew, or a Pagan of life, but the cause must be tried before the supreme tribunal of Sana, consisting of several Cadis, while he is only president. When an Emir shows a despotic disposition he is commonly dethroned. The next in rank are the Fakis, a title so lax as seemingly only to denote gentlemen. The governors of districts are called Dolas ; or, if superior in birth, Walis. The Dola in some degree corresponds with the Turkish Pasha. The chief magistrate of a small town without a garrison is called Sheik ; as a superior governor is sometimes called Emir, and in little villages Hakim. In each district there is also a Cadi ; who, like those in Turkey, are judges of ecclesiastic and civil affairs ; but in Arabia the prince himself is the high priest. His army, in peace, was computed at 4000 infantry and 1000 cavalry ; the soldiers being, as usual in the east, without uniforms. There is no navy, and the vessels in general are very rudely constructed, those of Yemen having sails made of matting.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. In Yemen murder is punished with death, but more often left to private revenge. In politeness the Arabs vie with the Persians, and there are still remains of their ancient hospitality. The common salutation is the *Salam Alekum*, or Peace be with you ; in pronouncing which words they raise the right hand to the heart. On meeting in their wide deserts the salutations are multiplied ; and the hand of a superior is kissed in token of respect. The houses, though of stone, are meanly constructed ; the apartments of the men being in front, those of the women behind. Of a middle stature, thin, and dried as it were by the sun, the Arab is moderate in his

food, the common people seldom exceeding a repast of bad bread made from durra, a kind of millet, mixed with camels' milk, oil, butter, or grease ; the only drink being water. Meat is little used, even by the rich, who deem it unhealthy in a hot climate. The orientals in general being water-drinkers they are very fond of pastry. The most noted drink is coffee, which they prepare like the Turks ; but in Yemen it is rarely used, as in their opinion it heats the blood ; but of the shells, or husks of the coffee, they prepare a liquor in the manner of tea. Spirituous liquors, though forbidden, are not absolutely unknown ; and they sometimes smoke a plant resembling hemp, which produces intoxication ; nor is tobacco neglected, which is smoked either in the Turkish or Persian manner.

DRESS. The dress, like that of the Turks and Hindoos, is long, often with large trowsers, a girdle of embroidered leather, and a knife, or dagger. Over the shoulder is worn a large piece of fine linen, originally designed to keep off the sun. The head dress seems oppressive, consisting of several bonnets, from ten to fifteen, some of linen, others of cotton and woollen, the outmost being often richly embroidered with gold ; and around this multitude of bonnets is wrapped, what they call a sasch, being a large piece of muslin, with fringes of silk or gold, which hang down behind. The women stain their nails red, and their feet and hands of a yellowish brown, with henna ; the eye lashes are darkened with antimony, as in many other oriental countries ; and every art is exerted to render the eye brows large and black. Polygamy is confined to the rich ; and throughout the whole Mahometan regions is far less general than is commonly supposed in Europe.

LANGUAGE. The language of the Arabs was, even in ancient times, divided into several dialects, as may be suspected from its wide diffusion. Even in Yemen there are subdivisions ; and polite people use a different enunciation from the vulgar. The language of the Koran is so different from the modern speech of Mecca, that it is taught in the colleges there, as the Latin is at Rome.

EDUCATION. Education is not wholly neglected, and many of the common people can read and write, and account ; while those of rank entertain preceptors to teach their children and young slaves. Near every mosque there is commonly a school, the masters, as well as the children

of the poor, being supported by legacies. The girls are instructed apart by women. In the chief cities are colleges for astronomy, astrology, philosophy, medicine, &c. and in the little kingdom of Yemen there are two universities, or celebrated academies.

CITIES AND TOWNS. Arabia has been compared to a cloke of frize, laced with gold, the skirts alone presenting cities and other marks of civilization. Mecca "was known to the Greeks under the name of Macoraba, and has not, in the most flourishing period, exceeded the size and populousness of Marseilles. Some latent motive, perhaps of superstition, must have impelled the founders in the choice of a most unpromising situation. It is situated in a plain about two miles long and one mile broad, at the foot of three barren mountains: the soil is a rock; the water even of the holy well of Zamzem, is bitter or brackish; the pastures are remote from the city; and grapes are transported above seventy miles, from the gardens of Tayef. By the sea port of Gedda, at the distance only of forty miles, they maintain an easy correspondence with Abyssinia. The treasures of Africa are conveyed over the peninsula to Gerrha or Katif, in the province of Bahrein, a city built, as it is said, of rock salt, by the Chaldean exiles; and from thence, with the native pearls of the Persian gulf, they are floated on rafts to the mouth of the Euphrates. In the markets of Saana and Merab, in the harbours of Oman and Aden, the camels of the Koreishites were laden with a precious cargo of aromatics: a supply of corn and manufactures was purchased in the fairs of Bostra and Damascus; the lucrative exchange diffused plenty and riches in the streets of Mecca; and the noblest of her sons united the love of arms with the profession of merchandise."

The government of this holy city is vested in a sheref, who is a temporal prince; and his revenue is increased by the donations of Mahometan sovereigns.

Medina stands about 200 B. miles N. of Mecca, being, as well as the latter, about a day's journey from the shores, of the Red Sea. It is, according to Niebuhr, a small town; surrounded with a paltry wall, little remarkable except for the tomb of Mahomet.

Sana, or Saana, in Yemen, is reputed at present the chief city of Arabia. It is situated at the bottom of a mountain called Nikkum, near which is a spacious garden. The

city is not very extensive, as one may walk round it in the space of an hour, so that the circuit cannot exceed four miles ; and even of this small space a part is occupied by gardens. The walls are of brick, with seven gates ; and there are several palaces of burnt brick, or of stone ; but the common houses are of bricks, dried in the sun. There are several *simseras*, or *caravanseras*, for merchants and travellers. There are excellent fruits, particularly grapes of many varieties. About six miles to the north there is a pleasant dale, enlivened with several rivulets ; and to the west is a considerable stream.

When such is the chief city of Arabia, the description of the others cannot be very interesting.

EDIFICES. Among the chief edifices of Arabia, must be named the Kaba, or temple of Mecca, which, according to the representation of Niebuhr, rather resembles the old Asiatic temples of Hindostan and Siam than a mosque, being an open square, encompassed with a colonnade, and ornamented with minarets. In this open space, which, as well as that of Medina, it seems improper to call a mosk, there are five or six houses of prayer, or chapels ; while in the centre is a small square edifice, peculiarly styled the Kaba, in which is fixed a black stone, the early object of Arabian adoration.

MANUFACTURES, &c. The manufactures of Arabia are of little consequence. Even in Yemen the works in gold and silver, and the coin itself, are produced by Jewish manufactories. In all Arabia there are neither wind-mills nor water-mills. Some musquets are made in the country, but they are mere matchlocks of mean execution. At Mocha there is one glass-house ; and there are in Yemen some coarse linen manufactures. Aloes, myrrh, and frankincense, though of inferior kind, constitute, with coffee, the chief products of Arabia.

The Arabian intercourse with Hindostan has greatly declined since the discoveries of the Portuguese. From Yemen are exported coffee, aloes, myrrh, olibanum, or an inferior kind of frankincense, senna, ivory, and gold from Abyssinia. The European imports were iron, steel, cannon, lead, tin, cochineal, mirrors, knives, sabres, cut glass, and false pearls.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. In the mountains of Yemen there is a regular rainy season, from the middle of

June to the end of September ; but even then the sky is rarely covered with clouds for twenty-four hours at a time ; and during the remainder of the year a cloud is scarcely to be seen. At Maskat, and other places the periodical rains vary. In the plains of Yemen rain is sometimes unknown for a whole year ; and in July and August the thermometer will be 98° , while at Sana in the mountains it is 85° . In the northern parts chiefly are perceived the disastrous effects of the burning wind called Samiel.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The general aspect of Arabia presents a central desert of great extent, with a few fertile *oases* or isles, as in Africa ; while the flourishing provinces are those situated on the shores of the sea, which supplies rain sufficient to maintain the vegetation.

Agriculture is occupied in the production of beautiful wheat, maize, *durra* a kind of millet, barley, beans, lentils, rape ; with the sugar cane, tobacco, and cotton. A few dyeing drugs, especially indigo and Indian madder, are also cultivated. The plough is simple ; and the pick is used instead of the spade. The chief exertion of agricultural industry is to water the lands from the rivulets and wells, or by conducting the rains. The harvest is torn up by the roots, and forage cut with the sickle.

RIVERS. The Euphrates is sometimes considered as an Arabian river ; but in Arabia Proper what are called rivers are mere torrents, which descend from the mountains during the rains, and for a short period afterwards. The most important river is probably that which rises near Sana, and joins the Indian sea below Harjiah. The little river of Krim flows from Mahrah into the same sea, and is followed by two or three brooks in Omon.

MOUNTAINS. The chief range of mountains seems to proceed in the direction of the Red Sea, at various distances from 30 to 150 miles, a circumstance which imparts extent and fertility to Yemen. In the country of Seger, commonly ascribed to Hadramaut, there is a range of hills remarkable for the product of frankincense ; and in the division called Arabia Petrea the celebrated mountain of Sinai must not be omitted, which presents two sublime summits of red granite.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The champaign country between the shore and the mountains, though traversed by streams, is yet too deficient in water

to support a luxuriant vegetation ; the lower parts are chiefly occupied by grasses and other humble plants, which afford a most grateful sustenance to the flocks and herds of the pastoral tribes that wander over them. The sides of the rivers, the valleys, and among the mountains, and the plains at their feet, are far superior to the rest of the country. Here cultivation and nature seem to contend with each other in the richness of their productions. Many of the Indian and Persian plants, distinguished for their beauty or use, have been transported hither in former ages, and are now found in a truly indigenous state ; this is probably the case with the tamarind, the cotton tree, the pomegranate, the banyan tree or Indian fig, the sugar cane, and a multitude of valuable species and varieties of melons and gourds. Two valuable trees, however, are the peculiar boast of Arabia Felix, namely, the coffee, found both cultivated and wild, and the *amyris opobalsamum*, from which is procured the balm of Mecca, the most fragrant and costly of all the gum resins. Of the palms, it possesses the date, the cocoa nut, and the great fan palm. The sycamore fig, the plantain, the almond and apricot, the bead tree, the mimosa nilotica and sensitiva, and the orange, nearly complete the catalogue of its native and cultivated trees.

The horse is the glory of Arabian zoology. They are here divided into two great classes, the *Kadishi*, or common kind, whose genealogy has not been preserved ; and the *Kechlani*, or noble horses, whose breed has been ascertained for two thousand years, proceeding as they fable, from the stalls of Solomon. These will bear the greatest fatigues, and pass whole days without food. They are said to rush on a foe with impetuosity ; and it is asserted that some of this noble race, when wounded in battle, will withdraw to a spot where their master may be secure ; and if he fall they will neigh for assistance. They are neither large nor beautiful, their race and hereditary qualities being the sole objects of estimation. There is also in this country a superior breed of asses, approaching in form and qualities to the mule, and sold at high prices.

This region, or Africa, seems also the native country of the camel, emphatically styled by the orientals the ship of the desert.

The breed of sheep has not been particularly illustrated ; but it would appear that both the wool and mutton are

coarse. The rock goat is said to be found in the mountains of Arabia Petrea. The other animals are the jakkal, or chacal ; the hyena towards the Persian gulf ; numerous monkeys in the woods of Yemen ; the jerboa, or rat of Pharaoh, in Neged : there are also antelopes, and wild oxen, with wolves, foxes, and wild boars, and the large and small panther. The ostrich is no stranger in the deserts. A little slender serpent, called baetan, spotted with black and white, is of a nature remarkably poisonous, the bite being instant death. The locust too is numerous : but the natives esteem the red kind as a fat and juicy food, and view it with no more aversion than shrimps or prawns are beheld by us.

MINERALS. Having no native gold, the people are still addicted to the infatuation of alchymy. Nor is silver found except mingled with lead. There are some mines of iron, but the metal is brittle. Those agates called Mocha-stones, are brought from Surat, and the best carnelians come from the gulf of Cambay.

ISLES. Besides several isles of little consequence in the Arabian gulf, there are two islands which deserve particular notice. Socotra, about 240 B. miles from the southern coast of Arabia, appears in all ages to have belonged to that country, and to have been celebrated for the production of aloes, still esteemed superior to any other. The inhabitants are clearly of Arabian extract. Frankincense, ambergris and coral are found in the neighbouring seas. The isle of Bahrin is in the Persian gulf, near the Arabian coast, and remarkable for the great pearl fishery in its neighbourhood.

ASIATIC ISLES.

I. THE ISLES OF SUNDA, OR THE SUMATRAN CHAIN.

THIS division of the Asiatic isles comprises Sumatra, Java, Balli, Lombok, Sumbava, Florez, and Timor ; with several isles of less note in the vicinity of these.

SUMATRA is an island of great extent, being not less than 950 B. miles in length, by about 200 in breadth. The English settlement of Bencoolen, in the S. E. part of this island, has occasioned particular attention to its nature and productions. It was certainly unknown to the ancients. The Arabs seem to have been acquainted with it in the ninth century, but it became first known to Europeans in the sixteenth. A chain of mountains runs through the whole isle ; but the height, though great, is not so considerable as to retain snow. Mount Ophir, immediately under the equinoctial line, is 13,842 feet above the sea, only yielding about 2000 feet to mount Blanc. There are many rivers on the western coast, but commonly impeded by sand-banks, so as to present few means of navigation. In the midst of what is called the Torrid Zone, the thermometer seldom rises above 85° , while in Bengal it attains 101° ; and the inland inhabitants of the mountains use fires to dispel the morning cold ; yet frost, snow, and hail are unknown. Thunder and lightning are frequent, particularly during the N. W. monsoon. The year has two divisions, called the rainy and dry monsoons ; the S. E. or dry, beginning about May, and ending with September ; the N. W. or wet, beginning in November, and ending about March ; the intermediate months, April and May, October and November, being variable : on the west coast the sea breeze

begins about ten in the forenoon, and continues till six in the evening ; being succeeded by the land breeze during the night. The soil is generally a stiff reddish clay, covered with a layer of black mould, the source of perpetual verdure ; but three quarters of the isle, especially towards the south, present an impervious forest. There seem to be many mines of gold mixed with copper, of iron and steel ; but tin is one of the chief exports. There are several volcanic mountains in Sumatra, as in most of the other islands of the oriental archipelago, but eruptions are unfrequent. The sea coast is chiefly occupied by the Malays, who seem to be recent settlers, and their language a dialect of a speech most widely extended, from Malacca nearly as far as the western coasts of America, through the innumerable islands of the Pacific. The chief native sovereignty is that of Menang Cabou, but the Rejangs seem to retain the purest race and manners. They are rather short and slender : the noses of infants are flattened, and their ears extended ; but the eyes are dark and clear. The complexion is properly yellow, being without the red tinge, which constitutes a tawny or copper colour : but the superior class of women is fair, and commonly of not unpleasing countenances.

The original clothing is made of the inner bark of trees, as in Otaheite ; but the dress of the Malays consists of a vest, a robe, and a kind of mantle, with a girdle, in which is the *crees*, or dagger. The villages are commonly on hills, and surrounded with fruit trees, the balli, or common hall, being in the centre. The houses are of wood and bamboos, covered with leaves of palm, standing on pillars, and scaled by a rude ladder. The furniture is of course simple, and common food rice ; sago, though common, being less used than in the islands farther to the east. The horses are small but well made, and hardy ; the cows and sheep also diminutive. Here are also found the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, tiger, bear, otter, porcupine, deer, wild hog, civet cat, with many varieties of the monkey. The buffaloe is employed in domestic labour. Among birds, the Sumatran or Argus pheasant is of distinguished beauty. The jungle fow., or wild poultry, also appear. Insects of all kinds swarm, particularly the destructive termites. The most abundant article is pepper, the object of the British settlement ; being produced by a climbing pant resembling a vine. The

white pepper is procured by stripping the outer husk from the ripe grains. Camphor is another remarkable vegetable product, and cassia, a coarse kind of cinnamon, is found in the central parts of the country. "The silk cotton (*bombax ceiba*) is also to be met with in every village. This is to appearance, one of the most beautiful raw materials the hand of nature has presented; but owing to the shortness and brittleness of the staple, it is esteemed unfit for the reel and loom. The commerce is chiefly with Hindostan and China. The Malays excel in gold and silver fillagree, and in weaving silk and cotton; but the manufactures are imperfect, and the sciences little cultivated. Even the rudest tribes of Sumatra and the other Asiatic isles, as far as the utmost bounds of this division, display a certain degree of civilization. The panjeran or prince presides over many magistrates; but his government is limited, his power being confined by his poverty. Laws are unknown, the chiefs rendering judgment according to customs. Most crimes are compensated by money, murder itself not excepted. Combats of cocks and quails are among the most favourite amusements, together with dances, dice, and other games. The use of opium is extensive, but rarely leads to other excesses. What is called a muck, by the natives *mongamo*, rather proceeds from revenge, or a sense of oppression, than from intoxication.

Several small isles encompass Sumatra, but are too inconsiderable to deserve a place in this epitome.

JAVA is not only an extensive island, about 650 B. miles in length by about 100 of medial breadth, but is remarkable for the city of *Eatavia*, the celebrated capital of the Dutch possessions. This island, like the former, abounds with forests, and presents an enchanting verdure. It seems also intersected by a ridge of mountains, like a spine pervading its length. *Eatavia* is strongly fortified with walls, and a citadel towards the sea. There are many canals about four feet in depth, and the town is large, and well built of stone. This metropolis of the oriental archipelago presents many nations and languages; and the Chinese constitute the greater part of the inhabitants, being contented for the sake of gain to forget the tombs of their ancestors, and the laws of their country against emigration. The Malay language is here universally understood. The streets are planted with large trees, which practice, with the Dutch

canals, probably contributes to the unhealthiness of this spot. The heat is not so intense considered in itself, being between 80° and 86° , as from the low situation of the town, and the murky exhalations from the bogs, canals, and a muddy sea, whence from nine o'clock till four it is impossible to walk out. The sun being nearly vertical, rises and sets about six throughout the year; but the nocturnal repose is infested by mosquitos. In the evening from six to nine, parties are formed, and intemperance assists the poison of the climate. The water is also of a bad quality. The air is so unwholesome, from fetid fogs and other causes, that dysenteries and putrid fevers destroy prodigious numbers; and of three settlers it is rare that one outlives the year. The rainy season begins with December, and lasts till March. Crocodiles abound in the rivers, as in most of the oriental isles.

Of Madura, Balli, Lombok, Sumbava, and Florez, little is known. Timor was discovered in 1522, by the companions of Magalhaens, who found in it alone the white sandal wood. The Portuguese, after a long struggle, effected a settlement; but were expelled by the Dutch in 1613, who regard this isle as a kind of barrier of the spice trade. Timor is nearly 200 miles in length by 60 in breadth; and the inhabitants are esteemed the bravest in the Oriental Archipelago.

II. BORNEO.

THIS island is reputed the largest in the world, except New Holland; as it is about 900 miles in length, by 600 at its greatest breadth.

The interior parts of the great island of Borneo are little known, though a considerable river flows from the centre of the country almost due south, forming the harbour of Bender Massin. Lofty mountains are said to rise in the middle of the island: many are volcanic, and often occasion tremendous earthquakes. The houses are often built on posts fixed in rafts, which are moored to the shore, and may be moved from place to place according to the convenience of the inhabitants. The natives in the interior are blacks, with long hair, of a middle stature, feeble, and in-

active ; but their features are superior to those of negroes. Pepper abounds in the interior country, with the gum called the dragon's blood, camphor, and sandal wood. Edible birds' nests are abundant. Gold is found in the interior country ; where there are also said to be diamonds, but inferior to those of Golconda. The Ourang Outang abounds. The natives are called Biajos, but their language has not been explained ; they are said to offer sacrifices of sweet scented wood to one supreme beneficent deity ; and the sentiments of piety, or in other words, of delightful gratitude, are accompanied by laudable morals. The chiefs extract one or two of the fore teeth, substituting others of gold ; and strings of the teeth of tigers, a real badge of knighthood, or courage, are worn round the neck. The town called Borneo on the N. W. consists of about three thousand houses, floating as above described : it was greatly frequented by the Chinese, who probably continue to be the chief traders to Borneo,

This large island is surrounded with many small isles which, from their relation to this comparative continent, may be termed Bornean islands, but are of small account.

III. THE MANILLAS, OR PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

THIS large group was discovered by Magalhaens in 1521, who called them the archipelago of St. Lazarus ; but they were afterwards styled the Philippines, in honour of Philip II. of Spain.

Luzon is the largest and most important of these isles, being more than seven degrees, or near 500 B. miles in length, by about 100 of medial breadth. It is pervaded in its length by a chain of high mountains towards the east. Gold, copper, and iron are among the certain products ; and the soil is reported to be uncommonly fruitful. The natives, who are of a mild character, seem of Malay origin. They are tall and well made, wearing only a kind of shirts with loose drawers, but the dress of the women is chiefly a large mantle, and their black and beautiful hair sometimes reaches the ground, the complexion being a deep tawny. The houses are of bamboo covered with palm leaves, raised on pillars to the height of eight or ten feet. The chief food

is rice and salt fish. The cotton is of peculiar beauty ; and the sugar cane and cocoa trees are objects of particular culture. The city of Manilla is well built and fortified, but a third part is occupied by convents : the number of Christian inhabitants is computed at 12,000. Between this city and Acapulco, nearly in the same parallel, on the W. of Mexico, was conducted a celebrated commerce. The Manilla ships, or galleons, were formerly of great size, but latterly smaller vessels have been used. The city of Manilla was taken by the English in 1762. The Chinese were here numerous till the beginning of the seventeenth century, when the Spaniards committed a terrible massacre of that industrious people. In 1769 it is said that they were again expelled from all these isles, by the bigotry of the governor ; since which time there has been a great decline in industry and produce.

Next in size is Mindanao, a beautiful and fertile island, the chief Spanish sttlement being at Sambuang in the S. W. In the south there is a volcano of constant eruption, which serves as a sea mark.

The other chief Philipines are Pulawain, Mindoro, Pani, Buglas, or isle of Negroes, Zebu, Leyt, or Leita, and Samar. The other little islands might be counted by hundreds. In general this grand and extensive group presents many volcanic appearances ; such as lava, volcanic glass, sulphur, and hot springs.

IV. THE CELEBEZIAN ISLES.

CELEBEZ is an isle of great and irregular length, more than 600 B. miles, but the breadth is commonly not above 60 B. miles. This island is lofty and mountainous, especially towards the centre, and there are several active volcanoes. The Portuguese obtained a settlement near Macassar, but were expelled by the Dutch in 1660. The natives, commonly called Macassars, are free-booters, and attack vessels with surprising desperation, and often with lances, or arrows poisoned with the juice of the notorious tree called upas. Their houses are raised on pillars, as usual, on account of the rainy season, or W. monsoon, from November till March. The Celebezian group might aptly be termed the Isles of Poison, being full of poisonous trees and plants.

Nature has thus contrasted the salutary productions of the spice islands with the most pernicious proofs of her power.

Around Celebez are many small isles ; most of them inhabited and governed by separate chieftains.

V. THE SPICE ISLANDS, INCLUDING THE MOLUCCAS.

THE chief spice islands are GILOLO, CERAM, and BOURO, with MORTAY, OUBI, MYSOL, BOURO, that of AMBOYNA, and the group of BANDA, with such small isles as approximate nearer to these than to the Celebezan group, or Sumatran chain, all languishing under the tyranny of jealous and phlegmatic Dutchmen.

GILOLO is of considerable extent ; the length is about 230 B. miles ; the breadth of each limb seldom above 40. The shores are low : the interior rises to high peaks. One of the chief towns is Tatany, situated on a point or small promontory of the eastern limb, faced with precipices, so as to be only accessible by ladders. This isle abounds with oxen, buffaloes, goats, deer, and wild hogs ; but the sheep are few. The bread fruit is frequent in Gilolo, with the sago tree.

CERAM is another island of considerable size, being about 190 B. miles in length by 40 in breadth. It produces clove trees ; as well as large forests of the sago tree, which forms a considerable article of export.

BOURO is about 90 miles in length, by 50 in breadth. This isle was nominally subject to the king of Ternat ; but in 1660 the Dutch built a fort, and, though they burned the exterior woods, seem to have improved the industry of the inhabitants. The civet weasel is found here, and the curious hog called babiroussa.

Of MORTAY, MYSOL, and OUBI, little is known. Mortay is a beautiful isle, but thinly inhabited, though full of sago trees, which are cut by the people of Gilolo ; and is subject to the king of Ternat. MYSOL, the most eastern of this group, is of a triangular shape, with a bold shore. The villages are built in the water upon posts ; and there are picturesque forests visited by the birds of paradise, which seem to migrate from Papua, and are caught in considerable numbers. OUBI abounds in cloves, and the Dutch have a small fort on the west side.

But besides these islands there is a group still remaining to be described. The **MOLUCCAS**, strictly so called, in the western extremity ; and **AMBOYNA** and **BANDA** in the south. The little or proper Moluccas, are **TERNAT**, **TIDORE**, **MOTIR**, **MAKIAN**, and **BATCHIAN**. In 1510 they were visited by Portuguese navigators from the west ; and afterwards by the Spaniards, conducted by Magalhaens, a Portuguese commodore. These two great maritime nations afterwards contested this precious property ; but the Moluccas were finally resigned to the Portuguese, who were supplanted by the Dutch about the year 1607. The English also claiming this opulent commerce, a treaty was signed in 1619, declaring the Moluccas, Amboyna, and Banda, common to both ; the English to have one third of the produce, and the Dutch two thirds ; each contributing a similar proportion to defend the islands from invaders. But in the short course of three years the Dutch, actuated by their insatiable avarice, determined by the most diabolical means, to free themselves from all competitors. They forged a plot of the English against their lives and liberties, and put them to death by the most exquisite tortures that hell itself could invent.

The clove is said to have abounded particularly in **MAKIAN**, but the growth was afterwards confined by the Dutch to Amboyna. The nutmeg specially flourished in the group of Banda. The largest of the little Moluccas is **BATCHIAN**, being governed by a sultan, who has a pension from the Dutch, either for the destruction or supply of nutmegs, but is otherwise little subservient. Batchian rises into woody hills ; and on the shores there are prodigious rocks of coral, of infinite variety and beauty. **MAKIAN** is a small isle at a greater interval, to the N. of Batchian, and rises like a high conic mountain from the sea. This was regarded as the chief Dutch settlement before Amboyna became the metropolis of Moluccas. Next is **MOTIR**, formerly the seat of Venus and voluptuousness. The most distinguished of the proper Moluccas are **TIDORE** and **TERNAT**. While Portugal was united to Spain the Dutch were defeated near Tidore in 1610 by the Spanish admiral Sylva ; but by the assistance of the king of Ternat the Batavians seized the fort.

TERNAT is the most northern and most important of the Moluccas, though it scarcely exceeds twenty-four miles in

circumference. In 1638 the Batavians formed an alliance with the king of Ternat and the lesser princes, which has been repeatedly renewed; but garrisons are established to enforce the observance, and the sultans of Ternat and Tidore are watched with great attention. Ternat consists chiefly of high land, abounding with streams, which burst from the cloudy peaks. The chief quadrupeds, are goats, deer, and hogs, and the birds are of distinguished beauty, particularly the king-fisher, clothed in scarlet and mazareen blue, called by the natives the Goddess. In Ternat the Boa-serpent is sometimes found, of the length of thirty feet; and by its power of suction and constriction is reported sometimes to swallow even small deer.

Equally distinguished are the most southern spice islands of AMBOYNA and BANDA, cloves being now restricted, so far as Dutch avarice could effect, to Amboyna, and nutmegs to Banda. Amboyna was discovered by the Portuguese about 1515, but was not seized till 1564; and was conquered by the Dutch about 1607. This celebrated isle is about 60 B. miles in length from N. to S. and on the west side there is a large bay, which divides it into two limbs or peninsulas. On the eastern side is another bay, with a bad harbour, where the Portuguese erected their ~~chief~~ fortress Victoria. The town of Amboyna, the capital of the isle, stands near the S. W. extremity, and is neatly built; the houses, on account of the frequent earthquakes, seldom exceed one floor. The face of this island is beautiful, woody mountains and verdant vales being interspersed with hamlets, and enriched by cultivation. The clove tree grows to the height of about forty or fifty feet, with spreading branches and long pointed leaves. In deep sheltered vales some trees will produce thirty pounds weight annually, the chief crop being from November to February. The soil is mostly a reddish clay, but in the vales blackish and sandy. When Amboyna was recently seized by the English, it was found, with its dependencies, to contain 45,252 souls, of which 17,813 were Protestants, the rest Mahometans, except a few Chinese and savages. The Dutch are tolerably polished, this being the next settlement to Batavia in wealth and consequence. The sugar and coffee are excellent, and among many delicious fruits is the mangosteen of Hindostan.

BANDA, or LANTOR, is the chief isle of a group which comprises six or seven others ; it does not exceed eight B. miles in length, W. to E. and the greatest breadth at its eastern extremity may be five miles. The nutmeg tree is the principal object of cultivation in these isles. When the English seized these isles in 1796, the annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 46,000 pounds of mace. The nutmeg tree grows to the size of a pear tree, the leaves resembling those of the laurel, and bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. The nutmeg, when ripe on the tree, has both a very curious and beautiful appearance : it is about the size of an apricot, and nearly of a similar colour, with the same kind of hollow mark all round it ; in shape it is somewhat like a pear : when perfectly ripe the rind over the mark opens, and discovers the mace, of a deep red, growing over and covering in part the thin shell of the nutmeg, which is black.

AUSTRALASIA.

UNDER THIS DENOMINATION ARE COMPRISED,

1. THE central and chief land of New Holland, with any isles which may be discovered in the adjacent Indian ocean, twenty degrees to the W. and between twenty and thirty degrees to the E. including particularly all the large islands that follow :

2. Papua, or New Guinea.

3. New Britain and New Ireland, with the Solomon Isles.

4. New Caledonia, and the New Hebudes.

5. New Zealand.

6. The large island called Van Diemen's Land, recently discovered to be separated from New Holland by a strait, or rather channel, called Bass's strait.

I. NEW HOLLAND.

SOME suppose that this extensive region, when more thoroughly investigated, will be found to consist of two, three, or more vast islands, intersected by narrow seas. However this be, the most recent and authentic charts still indicate New Holland as a country fully entitled to the appellation of a continent. The length from E. to W. is about 43 degrees of longitude, in the medial latitude of 25° , that is about 2340 g. miles. The breadth from N. to S. extends from 11° to 39° , being 28 degrees, 1680 g. miles. which is one quarter less than Europe, the smallest of the ancient continents.

The first civilized people to whom it was disclosed were the Spaniards or Portuguese, the earliest European navigators in this portion of the globe.

The Portuguese being supplanted by the Dutch, the latter are regarded by president Des Brosses as the chief discoverers of Australasia, between the year 1616 and 1644. The first discovery he dates in the month of October, 1616, when the western extremity was explored by Hartog.

In 1642 that celebrated navigator Tasman, leaving Batavia with two ships, performed almost a circuit of Australasia, and discovered the *southern* land of *Van Diemen*, with New Zealand, and some isles of less consequence.

The eastern coast having been carefully examined by York, and justly appearing of great importance, was formally taken possession of in the name of the king of Great Britain, 1770 ; and was selected by government as a proper place of transportation for criminals sentenced to that punishment by the laws of their country. The first ship sailed from Spithead on the 30th January, 1787, and arrived on the 20th of the same month in the following year. Botany Bay being found to be a station of inferior advantages to what were expected, port Jackson was preferred, on the south side of which, at a spot called Sidney Cove, the colony was finally settled. Port Jackson is one of the noblest harbours in the world, extending about fourteen miles in length with numerous creeks or coves.

The most recent accounts seem to authenticate the flourishing state of the settlement. The mode of cultivation has been improved, coal and rock salt discovered ; and there is room to expect that this wide territory will not be found deficient in the usual riches of nature.

INHABITANTS. From the accounts of various navigators, there is room to infer that this extensive tract is peopled by three or four races of men, those observed in the S. W. being described as different from those in the N. and both from those in the E. with whom alone we are intimately acquainted. These are perhaps in the most early stage of society which has yet been discovered in any part of the globe. They are merely divided into families, the senior being styled Be-ana, or Father. One tribe numerous and muscular, has the singular prerogative of exacting a tooth from young men of other families, the sole token of government or subordination. No religion whatever is known, though they have a faint idea of a future existence, and think their people return to the clouds, whence they originally fell. They are of a low stature, and ill made; the arms, legs, and thighs, being remarkably thin. Fish is the only food of those on the coast, while a few in the woods subsist on such animals as they can catch, and climb trees for honey, flying squirrels, and opossums. The features of the women are not unpleasant, though approaching to the negro. The black bushy beards of the men, and the bone or reed which they thrust through the cartilage of the nose, gives them a disgusting appearance; which is not improved by the practice of rubbing fish oil into their skins, as a protection from the air and moskitos, so that in hot weather the stench is intolerable. They colour their faces with white or red clay. The women are marked by the loss of the two first joints of the little finger of the left hand, as they were supposed to be in the way when they coiled their fishing lines. Some are nearly as black as African negroes, while others exhibit a copper colour, but the hair is long, not woolly like the African. Their noses are flat, nostrils wide, sunk eyes, thick brows and lips, with a mouth of prodigious width, but the teeth white and even. "Many had very prominent jaws ; and there was one man, who, but for the gift of speech, might very well have passed for an ourang-outang."

The huts are constructed of the bark of trees, in the form of an oven, the fire being at the entrance. Here they sleep promiscuously. Fish are killed with a kind of prong, or taken by the women, with lines of bark and hooks made of the mother of pearl oyster. The fish are often broiled on a fire laid on sand in the canoe. Beasts are taken in a kind of toils. Caterpillars and worms are likewise articles of food. The canoes are made of bark extended on a timber frame.

These poor savages are the abject slaves of superstition, believing in magic and witchcraft and ghosts ; they have also spells against thunder and lightning, and pretend to foretell events by the meteors called falling stars. Young people are buried, but those who have passed the middle age are burnt ; a rude tumulus being erected by way of tomb.

LANGUAGE. The language is reported to be grateful to the ear, expressive and sonorous, having no analogy with any other known language.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. From its situation on the southern side of the equator, the seasons are like those of the southern part of Africa and America, the reverse of those in Europe ; the summer corresponding with our winter, and the spring with autumn. Mr. Collins found the weather in December very hot, but the climate was allowed to be fine and salubrious. The rains were heavy, appearing to fall chiefly about the full and change of the moon ; and at intervals there were storms of thunder and lightning.

The general aspect of the country seems hilly, but not mountainous, partly covered with tall trees clear from underwood ; on the shores large swamps also occur. The soil around Botany Bay is black and fat, and fertile of plants. Considerable quantities of maize and wheat have been raised, particularly on Norfolk Island.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND MOUNTAINS. Concerning the rivers, lakes and mountains of New Holland, there can be but little information.

ANIMALS. This wide country presents a peculiarity in the animals, being mostly of the opossum kind, and leaping habitually on the hind legs : the chief in size is the Kangaroo. The native dogs are of the chacal kind, and never bark. Among the few other quadrupeds yet described are weazels and ant-eaters, with that singular animal the

duck-billed platypus, the jaws being elongated into the complete bill of a bird. Among the birds are the brown eagle, several falcons, and many elegant parrots ; there are also bustards and partridges, with some pigeons. A new kind of cassowary must not be omitted, said to be seven feet in length : it is not uncommon, and the flesh tastes like beef. Among the aquatic birds are the heron, and gigantic pelicans. There are also peculiar ducks and geese ; and the black swan is a rare progeny of the new continent.

II. PAPUA, OR NEW GUINEA.

THIS country is one of the most interesting in Australasia, as partaking of the opulence of the Moluccas, and their singular varieties of plants and animals. It was first discovered by Saavedra, a Spanish Captain, in 1528, who had sailed from Mexico by the command of Cortez, to explore the Spice islands. This extensive country is still far from being completely investigated, but is conceived to be a vast island of more than 1200 miles in length, by a medial breadth of perhaps 300.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. On this extensive territory, in a situation so highly favoured by nature, and probably enriched with the choicest productions, there is no European settlement. The inhabitants of the northern part are called Papous, whence the name of the country. They are black, and even said to have the woolly hair of negroes. In the interior is a race called Haraforas, who live in trees, which they ascend by a notched pole, drawing it after them to prevent surprise. The appearance of the Papuans and their habitations is grotesque, the latter being built on stages in the water ; in which they resemble the Borneans and other nations in the Asiatic isles. The women seem the most industrious in making mats, and pots of clay which they afterwards burn with dry grass or brush wood.

“ The aspect of these people is frightful and hideous ; the men are stout in body, their skin of a shining black, rough and often disfigured with marks like those occasioned by the leprosy ; their eyes are very large, their noses flat, mouth from ear to ear, their lips amazingly thick, espe-

cially the upper lip; their hair woolly, either a shining black or fiery red. The men by way of ornament hang round their necks the tusks of boars. The heads of the women are of less size than those of the men, and in their left ear they wear small brass rings."

The chief commerce is with the Chinese, from whom they purchase their instruments and utensils. Their returns are ambergris, tortoise-shell, small pearls, birds of paradise, and other birds, which the Papuans dry with great skill. Some slaves are also exported, probably captives taken in intestine wars.

The natural history of this country is little known, but the zoology is striking and romantic. Papua is the chosen residence of the splendid and singular birds of paradise, of which ten or twelve sorts are enumerated by Mr. Pennant. They alight on the highest trees, seeming to feed on berries, and according to some on nutmegs and butterflies: and are either shot with blunt arrows, or caught with bird-lime or nooses. The bowels and breast bone being extracted, they are dried with smoke and sulphur, sold for nails or bits of iron; and exported to Banda. Papua also boasts of elegant parrots; while the crowned or gigantic pigeon almost equals a turkey in size.

Some of the small adjacent islands are better known than the main land of Papua; as Waijoo, or Wadjoo, which is an isle of considerable size, and said to contain 100,000 inhabitants. And Salvatti another populous island, governed by a raja. The people of these two large islands resemble those of the main land of Papua, being a singular race of horrible appearance, and great ferocity. They live on fish, or turtle, and sago, that tree abounding in Papua, but the substance is chiefly prepared by the people of Waijoo.

III. NEW BRITAIN, AND NEW IRELAND, WITH THE SOLOMON ISLES.

NEW BRITAIN was first explored and named by Dampier in 1700. In 1767 Captain Carteret passed through a channel between New Britain and New Ireland. In these parts the nutmeg tree is found abundant, being perhaps the most remote region towards the east, of that valuable plant.

Dampier visited a bay in New Britain, called Port Montague, and found the land mountainous and woody, but interspersed with fertile vales and beautiful streams. The country seemed very populous. The chief products seemed to be cocoa nuts, but there were yams, and other roots, particularly ginger.

INHABITANTS. Captain Carteret found the natives of New Ireland very hostile, having lances headed with flint. Their faces were streaked with white, and their hair dabbed with powder of the same colour. They are black, and said to be woolly headed, but without the thick lips or flat nose of the negro. Some of the canoes of New Ireland were ninety feet in length, formed out of a single tree.

The Solomon Islands discovered by Mendana, in 1575, are a large group, extending from Lord Anson's isle in the N. W. to the isle called Egmont by Carteret in the S. E. Some of the natives were of a copper colour, others of a deep black, with a wrapper of linen around the waist, while the neck was ornamented with little beads of gold. The canoes were small, two being commonly fastened together. In baskets of palm leaves they carry a kind of bread made of roots.

IV. NEW CALEDONIA, AND THE NEW HEBUDES.

THESE regions were discovered by Captain Cook in 1774.

New Caledonia is a large island, and the natives are said to be a muscular race, of a deep brown complexion, resembling those of New Zealand.

The women are more chaste than in the other isles of the Pacific. The houses are neat, some having carved door posts, and they rise in the form of a bee hive, warm but full of smoke. The dress is a slight wrapper; and the hair which is frizzled, not woolly, is ornamented with a comb, while the beard is worn short. They subsist on roots and fish, the country being very barren and rocky.

In Tanna, one of the New Hebudes, there is a remarkable volcano, with some hot springs. Here are found plantains, sugar canes, yams, and several kinds of fruit trees.

V. NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was first discovered by Tasman in 1642, but he did not land.

Our great navigator Cook explored these regions in 1770, and discovered a strait which divides the country into two large islands. One is not less than 600 B. miles in length, by about 150 in medial breadth ; and the other is little inferior in size.

One of these islands appears to be far more fertile than the other ; but both enjoy a temperate climate, similar to that of France. The natives were observed to be of a brown complexion, little deeper than the Spanish, and some are even fair. They equal the tallest Europeans in stature ; and their features are commonly regular and pleasing. It is singular to observe such a diversity between them and the natives of New Holland, when theory would expect to find them the same race of men. So far as present discoveries extend, the natives of New Holland and Papua seem to display an African origin ; while most of the other islands in the Pacific appear to have been peopled from Asia.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The New Zealanders inter their dead ; they also believe that the third day after the interment the heart separates itself from the corpse, and is carried to the clouds by an attendant spirit.

Suicide is very common among the New Zealanders, and this they often commit by hanging themselves on the slightest occasions ; thus a woman who has been beaten by her husband will perhaps hang herself immediately.

They have no other division of time than the revolution of the moon, until the number amounts to one hundred, which they term " Ta-tee E-tow," that is one Etow, or hundred moons ; and it is thus they count their age, and calculate all other events.

The natives have no *morai*, or place of worship ; but the priests alone address the gods for prosperity.

The flax of New Zealand has excited particular attention, being of a beautiful silky appearance, and the plant remarkably tall. The culture has been attempted both in France and England without success ; perhaps from some

remarkable difference in soil, or the entire reversion of seasons. It is not a little remarkable, that in this extensive land no quadruped was observed, except a few rats, and a fox dog, which is a domestic animal with the natives.

The general dress is an oblong garment made by knotting the silky flax; and the ears are ornamented with bits of jad or beads, the face being often besmeared with a red paint. The habitations are far superior to those in New Holland; and the boats are well built of planks raised upon each other, and fastened with strong withes. Some are fifty feet long and so broad as to be able to sail without an outrigger, but the smaller sort commonly have one, and they often fasten two together by rafters. The large canoes will carry thirty men or more; and have often a head ingeniously carved. Their weapons are spears and javelins, with the pa-too, a kind of club or rude battle-axe; and in combat they distort their features like demons. The yet warm bodies of their enemies are cut in pieces, broiled, and devoured with peculiar satisfaction.

VI. VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.

THIS is the last great division yet discovered of the wide expanse of Australasia. The name was imposed by that eminent Dutch navigator Tasman. It has been recently discovered to be an island, in the form of an oblong square, about 160 B. miles in length, by half that breadth, being divided from New Holland by a strait, more than thirty leagues wide. The natives were entirely naked; of a common stature, but rather slender, the skin being black, and the hair as woolly as that of any native of Guinea, but their lineaments were more pleasing than those of African negroes. The hair and beards, and of some the faces, were smeared with red ointment. The hovels resemble those of New Holland; but sometimes large trees are hollowed out by fire to the height of six or seven feet, so as to form a rude habitation.

POLYNESIA.

THE following are the chief subdivisions comprised under the denomination of Polynesia.

1. The Pelew Isles.

2. The Ladrões, a chain extending in a northerly direction, the small islands in the Pacific seeming to be mostly the summits of ranges or groups of mountains.

3. The Carolines, a long range from E. to W. so as perhaps, in strictness, to include the Pelews.

4. The Sandwich Isles.

5. The Marquesas.

6. The Society Isles, so named in honour of the Royal Society.

7. The Friendly Isles.

There are besides, many isles scattered in different directions, which it would be difficult to connect with any group, and indeed none of them, yet discovered, appears to be of any consequence.

I. THE PELEW ISLES.

THIS group recently attracted considerable attention, from an ingenious and pleasing account of them, drawn up by Mr. Keate, from the papers of captain Wilson, who suffered shipwreck on these islands in 1783. The narrative is doubtless heightened, but the people appear to be a most gentle and amiable race, the gay and innocent children of nature. It is a peculiarity, in the oriental archipelago, that the small isles are the chief seats of comparative civilization, by the concentration of society. Where there is no room for secession, the society becomes as it were one family.

The Pelewans are a stout well made people rather above the middle stature. Their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the copper hue, but not black, and their hair is long and flowing. The men are en-

tirely naked, while the women only wear two little aprons, or rather fringes, made of the husk of the cocoa nut. Both sexes are tatoored, and the teeth are dyed black. Polygamy is allowed, and the dead are interred. There seems no appearance of religion of any kind, though they have an idea that the soul survives the body.

The government is in the hands of a king, under whom there are *rufaks*, or chiefs, who also constitute a kind of nobles. The property of all the land is supposed to be vested in the sovereign; while that of the people is only personal, as a canoe, weapons, or rude articles of furniture. Our domestic poultry are here wild in the woods, and were neglected by the natives, till taught by the English that they were proper for food. Their chief nourishment appears to be fish; but they make a kind of sweetmeat from the sugar-cane, which seems indigenous. The chief drink is the milk of the cocoa nut. They commonly rise at daylight, and immediately go to bathe in fresh water. Their houses are raised on large stones, about three feet from the ground, being constructed of planks and bamboos, and the fire-place in the middle, secured with hard rubbish. There are large mansions for public meetings. In general their articles resemble those of Otaheite, and other isles in the South Sea. The weapons are spears, darts, and slings: and the canoes are formed of the trunk of a tree, neatly ornamented.

The ebony tree is found in the forests, and the bread fruit and cocoa tree seem to abound, with sugar-canes and bamboos. No kind of grain was seen, nor any quadrupeds, except some rats in the woods, and three or four cats in the houses.

II. THE LADRONES.

THIS appellation implies the Isles of Robbers, and was given by that distinguished navigator Magalhaens, who first discovered these islands in 1521.

In colour, speech, manners, and government, they considerably resemble the people of the Philippines, before the Spanish conquest. These isles were then very populous.

Guam, the largest, is forty leagues of circuit, having thirty thousand inhabitants.

The Ladrões are computed to be twelve or fourteen in number; but not above three or four are inhabited. Their vessels, called flying proas, have been esteemed singular specimens of naval architecture.

In these seas is the stupendous rock called Lot's Wife, rising in the form of a pyramid, and thus described by Mr. Meares in his voyage: "The latitude of this rock was $29^{\circ} 50'$ north, the longitude $142^{\circ} 23'$ east of Greenwich. The waves broke against its rugged front, with a fury proportioned to the immense distance they had to roll before they were interrupted by it. It rose almost perpendicular to the height of near three hundred and fifty feet. A small black rock appeared just above the water, at about forty or fifty yards from the western edge. There was a cavern on its south-eastern side, into which the waters rolled with an awful and tremendous noise. In regarding this stupendous rock, which stood alone in an immense ocean, we could not but consider it as an object which had been able to resist one of those great convulsions of nature that change the very form of those parts of the globe which they are permitted to desolate."

III. THE CAROLINES.

THIS is the largest group, or rather the most extensive range of islands in the Pacific ocean. This chain appears to have been first discovered by the Spaniards in 1686, and was named from the Spanish monarch Charles II. They are about thirty in number, and very populous, except three which were uninhabited. The natives resemble those of the Philippines, and chiefly live upon fish and cocoa nuts. According to the letters of the Jesuits, each isle was subject to its chief, but all respected a monarch, who resided at Lamurec.

They believe in certain celestial spirits, and think they descend to bathe in a sacred lake in Fallalo, but there are neither temples nor idols, nor any appearance of worship. The dead are sometimes thrown into the sea, and at others interred, the grave being surrounded with a stone wall. It

is said that those of Yap worship a kind of crocodile, and have their magicians. Polygamy is allowed, and the Tamul or chief of the large isle of Hogoleu had nine wives. Criminals are banished from one isle to another.

They do not appear to have any instruments of music, but their dances are accompanied with songs. Even in this distant quarter of the globe negro slaves are not unknown : and in one or two of the islands the breed is said to be mingled, twenty-nine Spaniards having been left on one of these islands, who are supposed to have married and settled.

IV. THE SANDWICH ISLES.

THESE islands appear to have been first discovered by the great navigator Cook, and the island Owhyhee the largest in the group, being about 280 B miles in circumference, is unfortunately distinguished as the place where this able commander was slain by the natives in February, 1779.

The natives are rather of a darker complexion than those of Otaheite, but the features are pleasing. The hair is sometimes long, sometimes curled, as among Europeans : but the nose is always spread at the point, perhaps owing to the mode of salutation, in which they press their noses together. Captain King represents them as a mild and affectionate people, free from the Otaheitan levity, and the proud gravity of those of the Friendly Isles. This ingenious people has even made some progress in agriculture and manufactures : yet they still sacrifice human victims, but do not eat them like the people of New Zealand, at least so far as information could be obtained. The beard is generally worn ; and among the ornaments of both sexes is a kind of fan to drive away flies, made of the fibres of the cocoa nut, or of long feathers. They tatoo their bodies ; and among females even the tip of the tongue. The dress consists of a narrow piece of coarse cloth called the *maro*, prepared in the same manner as at Otaheite, which passes between the legs, and is fastened round the loins. In battle the men throw a kind of mats over their shoulders, and this armour is neatly manufactured. On solemn occa-

sions the chiefs wear dresses, artfully and beautifully formed of feathers. The women have only a slight wrapper, and the hair is cut short behind, but turned up from their forehead. The food consists chiefly of fish, to which are added yams, plantains, and sugar canes ; while people of rank feast on the wild boar, and sometimes the flesh of dogs. The government is in a supreme chief called Eree Taboo, whose funeral is accompanied by the sacrifice of two or more servants. The inferior chiefs are styled Erees ; and there is a second class of proprietors, and a third of labourers, all these ranks seeming to be hereditary.

CLIMATE, &c. The climate appears to be more temperate than that of the West Indies ; and there is a regular land and sea breeze.

The quadrupeds are few ; only hogs, dogs, and rats, being discovered, and the kinds of birds are not numerous. These islands produce abundance of the bread fruit, and sugar canes of amazing size.

V. THE MARQUESAS.

THESE islands were discovered by the Spaniards, and in 1774 they were visited by captain Cook, and again by captain Wilson in 1797.

The natives are said to surpass all other nations in symmetry of shape, and regularity of features ; and were it not for the practice of tatooing, the complexion would be only tawny, while the hair is of many colours, but none red. Some of the women are nearly as fair as Europeans. A long narrow piece of cloth was wrapt round the waist, the ends being tucked up between the thighs, while a broad piece of the cloth was thrown over their shoulder, reaching half way down the leg.

The religious ceremonies resemble those of Otaheite ; and they have a Morai in each district, where the dead are buried under a pavement of large stones. Their deities are numerous, and the chief seems to have little power, custom alone being followed, instead of laws. Like most uncivilized nations, they have no regular meals, but eat five or six times a day, or oftener. The women seem more subjected to the men, than at Otaheite. The canoes

are made of wood, and the bark of a soft tree, being commonly from sixteen to twenty feet in length, the prow carved in rude resemblance of a human face.

No quadrupeds were discovered except hogs, but there are tame poultry, and the woods are filled with many beautiful birds. In one of these isles an English missionary was left, in the benevolent intention of discouraging mutual slaughter, and human sacrifices.

VI. THE SOCIETY ISLES.

ALL the islands from longitude 160° west from Greenwich, to the eastern extremity of Polynesia, may be included under the general name of Society Islands, amounting to sixty or seventy. Of these, Otaheite is still by far the most considerable in size, being about 120 miles in circumference. This Island appears to consist of two mountains, a larger and a smaller, joined by a narrow ridge; and the habitations are entirely confined to the level coasts; as the natives crowd to the shores for fish, their chief aliment.

Near the central summit of the large mountain of Otaheite, which in circumference, though not in height, resembles Etna, there is a curious lake of some extent: but no river appears, there being only rivulets, which spring from the skirts, and pursue a brief course of two or three miles to the ocean.

INHABITANTS. The natural colour of the inhabitants is olive, inclining to copper. The women are only a shade or two deeper than an European brunette. They have fine black eyes, with white even teeth, soft skin, and elegant limbs; while their hair is of a jetty black, perfumed and ornamented with flowers. But with all these advantages they yield infinitely in beauty to the women of the Marquesas, the face has a broad masculine appearance.

The chiefs are taller than the people, few being under six feet; and as personal size and strength are the chief distinctions in early society, it is probable that their ancestors were selected for these advantages, which have been continued by superior food and ease. The dress of both sexes is nearly the same, except that the men wear the *maro*, a narrow piece of cloth wrapped round the waist,

and passing between the thighs ; an oblong piece, cut in the middle to admit the head, hangs down before and behind ; and another piece is wrapped round the middle, and a square mantle is thrown over all. Both sexes wear garlands of flowers and feathers ; and the women use a kind of bonnet made of cocoa leaves. Parturition is easy ; and the infant can swim as soon as it can walk.

Their voice and speech are soft and harmonious ; and their dialect is the Italian of the Pacific ocean. Their rude manufactures are truly wonderful, and evince the greatest ingenuity. Their dwellings are about eighteen feet in length, with a few articles of furniture, such as trays, baskets, mats, and a large chest.

RELIGION. Their deities are numerous ; each family having its Tee, or guardian spirit, whom they worship at the Morai ; but they have a great god, or gods of a superior order, styled Fwhanow Po, or the progeny of night. These benevolent people cannot conceive a future punishment ; and regard the idea alone as the utmost effort of human malignity. But they admit the immortality of the soul, and degrees of future eminence and happiness, proportioned to its virtue and piety. The Tahouras, or priests, are numerous, and have great power ; but all the chiefs officiate on certain occasions. The human victims are commonly criminals, and are killed during sleep ; a curious instance of ferocious superstition, mingled with mildness of character.

ANIMALS. The chief animals are hogs, and they have also dogs and poultry. The bread fruit tree abounds ; and large plantations are made of cocoa trees and plantains. The soil of the low lands, and of the vales which intersect the ridge towards the ocean, is remarkably fertile, consisting of a rich blackish mould. In the north the harvest of bread fruit begins about November, and continues till the end of January : while in the southern part it often begins in January and continues till November. The lake above mentioned is said to be fathomless ; but its shores are well peopled by an industrious race. The chief harbour of Otaheite appears to be Matavai, on the north side of the island.

The next island in regard to size is Ulitea : but this and the others of this group, are of far inferior dimensions to Otaheite, and hardly claim attention in a general description.

VII. THE FRIENDLY ISLES.

THIS group extends chiefly from S. W. to N. E. including the Feejee Isles, those called the Isles of Navigators, and several detached isles in a more northerly position. The name was imposed by captain Cook, in testimony of the disposition of the people ; but they had been discovered by Tasman so early as 1643. They are contrasted with those of Otaheite, as being of a more grave and regular behaviour ; and the power of the chiefs is more despotic. A greater security of property has also superinduced more ingenuity and industry : but in general the manners and customs approach so nearly, that a farther account might appear repetition.

According to latest information Tongataboo the chief island is in an universal and surprising state of cultivation, the whole island consisting of inclosures, with reed fences about six feet high, intersected with innumerable roads. The whole is such a picture of industry, as to form a reproach to nations who call themselves civilized. The length of Tongataboo is only about sixteen miles, by about eight at its greatest breadth. The commodities are, as usual, hogs, bread fruit, cocoa nuts, and yams.

Some missionaries were left here, who imparted some useful arts to the natives, but rats were very destructive to the European plants.

From the accounts of La Perouse it would appear that the ISLANDS OF NAVIGATORS, are by far the most important in this large group. At Maouna, one of the largest of these islands, captain De Langle, Lamanon the naturalist, and nine seamen were massacred by the inhabitants, the captain having unadvisedly given beads to a few of the chiefs while he neglected others. At Maouna the frigates were surrounded with two hundred canoes, full of different kinds of provisions, fowls, hogs, pigeons, or fruit. The women were very pretty and licentious ; and the men of remarkable stature, strength and ferocity ; so that they despised the comparatively diminutive size of the French. The villages are delightfully situated in the midst of spontaneous orchards, and the huts neatly erected, with rude colonades, and covered with leaves of the cocoa palm. Hogs, dogs and fowls abounded ; with the bread fruit tree, the cocoa nut, the banana, the guava, and the orange. Iron and cloth were despised, and beads alone acceptable.

AMERICA.

WE come now to treat of a continent of vast extent and fertility, and the last discovered quarter of the terraqueous globe. Of this extensive region, the far greater part remains to be reclaimed from a state of nature, but promises to reward the hand of industry as liberally as either of the more ancient divisions; and to produce events as worthy of place in the annals of civilization and improvement. In treating this portion of geography, we will pursue nearly the same arrangement as in what has gone before.

EXTENT. The southern limits of the American continent is clearly estimated from the strait of Magalhaens, or according to the French depravation of a Portuguese name, Magellan. But the northern extent is not ascertained with equal precision. If Baffin's bay really exist, the northern limit may extend to 80 degrees, or perhaps to the pole. But amidst the remaining uncertainty, it will be sufficient to estimate the length of America from the 72d degree of north latitude to the strait of Magalhaens, or the 54th degree of south latitude; a space of 126 degrees, or 7560 geographical miles.

In South America the greatest breadth is from cape Blanco in the west to that of St. Roque in the east; which, according to the best maps, is 48 degrees, or 2880 g. miles. But in the north the breadth may be computed from the promontory of Alaska to the most eastern point of Labrador, or even of Greenland, which would add more than a third part to the estimate. In British miles the length of America may be estimated at 8800, and supposing the breadth of North America 3840 g. miles, it will, in British miles, be about 4400.

DISCOVERY, &c. Whether this quarter of the globe was first peopled from the north-west side of Europe, the north-east of Asia, or the shores of Africa that approach nearest to the coast of Brazil, or from all three, will perhaps always remain the subject of conjecture. There is considerable plausibility in tracing the Aborigines of the New World to all of these sources, as there is a sufficient difference in the persons, language, and customs of the various savage tribes, dispersed over this extensive continent, to warrant all of these suppositions. But from whatever quarter these people originally came, it is highly probable they were driven hither by stress of weather: for it is not to be supposed that men would willingly trust themselves out of sight of land, without any knowledge of the mariners' compass, of which they must have been ignorant. It may be also very safely concluded, that from whatever quarter they departed, they never returned to narrate their adventures; and, of course, all that has been written respecting the knowledge the ancients had of America, is nothing more than fanciful theory, founded on very doubtful history.

In the beginning of the fifteenth century Europe was sufficiently acquainted with the treasures of the east, its jewels, precious metals, silks and spices, to excite avidity; and a strong spirit of enterprise. About this time the Portuguese visited the western coasts of Africa, and, sailing round its southern promontory, were the first European nation that opened a direct commercial intercourse with the east. Columbus, who had been many years in the Portuguese service, conceived it possible to discover a shorter navigation to these wealthy regions than round the Cape of Good Hope. In the voyages he had made to Africa, and the western isles, he had gained such information as induced him to believe there was a western continent less distant, or rather that he could reach the East Indies by sailing a western course from Europe.

With this persuasion strongly impressed on his mind, he proposed to undertake a voyage of discovery. He first laid his plan before the state of Genoa, his native country, but there it was reprobated as visionary, and rejected: he then applied to John II. king of Portugal, a prince at that time distinguished for his commercial enterprize, but the intrigues of some influential men prevented his success.

Undiscouraged by disappointment, where he had most reason to hope for encouragement, he at last presented himself to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain ; where, after many years attendance and solicitation, he at last succeeded—owing to the superior genius and enterprise of the Queen—She resolved to patronize Columbus, and to furnish him with a small fleet for the purpose of his intended voyage : but so indifferent were the king and his courtiers to the important undertaking, that three ships (two of them very small) and ninety men were all the assistance he could obtain. With this small force, the cost of which was hardly 20,000 dollars, he left the port of Palos, in Andalusia, on the 3d of August, 1492, and after combating the winds and waves for ten weeks on an untried ocean, on the 12th of October, he discovered and landed on San Salvador, one of the Bahama islands. Proceeding south from San Salvador he discovered the large island of Cuba, and after that Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, on which last he built a fort, and formed the first European settlement in America.

But as it is now universally admitted that Greenland forms part of America, the discovery must of course be traced to the first visitation of Greenland by the Norwegians, in the year 982 ; which was followed in the year 1003 by the discovery of Vinland, which seems to have been part of Labrador, or of Newfoundland. The colony in Vinland was soon destroyed by intestine divisions ; but that in Greenland continued to flourish till maritime intercourse was impeded by the encroaching shoals of arctic ice. Though the first European colony in America was thus lost, the Danes asserted their right by settlements on the western coast, called new Greenland, to distinguish it from the original colony on the eastern shores, or what is called Old Greenland.

Greenland continued to be well known ; and, as many English vessels sailed to Iceland in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, it is probable that this part of America was not wholly unvisited by them.

The chief epochs of American discovery of course are :

A. D. 982. Greenland discovered by the Norwegians, who planted a colony.

1003. Vinland, that is a part of Labrador or Newfoundland, visited by the Norwegians, and a small colony left, which, however, soon perished.

After this there seems a long pause, for no farther discovery in America has hitherto been traced, by the utmost exertion of learned research till the time of Colon.

1492. Colon sails from Spain, in quest of the new world, on Friday the 3d day of August. On the first of October he was, by his reckoning, 770 leagues W. of the Canaries. His men began to mutiny, and he was forced to promise to return in three days, if land did not appear. Fortunate presages soon arose, as land-birds, a cane newly cut, a carved piece of wood, and the branch of a tree with fresh red berries. These and other symptoms induced Colon to order the ships to lie to in the evening of the 11th of October, in the certainty of seeing land on the approach of day light. The night was passed in gazing expectation; and a light having been observed in motion, the cry of *land! land!* resounded from the head-most ship. With the dawn of Friday, October 12th, a beautiful isle appeared, two leagues to the north. *Te Deum* was sung with shouts of exultation, and every mark of gratitude and veneration to the admiral. Colon was the first who landed, to the great amazement of the natives, who regarded their visitors as children of the sun, the astonishment on both sides being indescribable.

This first discovery of Colon, as we have observed, he called San Salvador, but it is now better known by the native name of Guanahani, (the cat island of our mariners) being one of the group called the Bahama isles. Colon soon afterwards discovered Cuba and St. Domingo. After visiting the Azores on his return, he arrived at Lisbon on the 4th of March, 1493.

1493. The *second* voyage of Colon 25th September. Steering more southerly, he discovered several of the Caribbee islands. Returned in 1496.

In this second voyage Colon brought a body of cavalry, and a number of large fierce dogs, to assist his barbarous countrymen, in hunting and pursuing the natives: though from the reception he met with on his first voyage, he had no reason to think they would be necessary, as long as he treated the natives with humanity and justice.

1498. *Third* voyage of Colon toward the south-west, where he expected to find the spice Islands of India. On the 1st of August he discovered an island which he called Trinidad, not far from the mouth of the river Oronoco. From the estuary of this river he judged that it must flow

through a country of immense extent ; and he landed in several places on the coast of the continent now called Paria. He then returned to Hispaniola, or St. Domingo : and in October 1500, was sent back to Spain in chains !

1499. Ojeda, an officer who had accompanied Colon in his second voyage, sails to America with four ships, but discovered little more than Colon had done. One of the adventurers was Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine man of science, eminently skilled in navigation, who perhaps acted as chief pilot. On his return, Amerigo published the first description that had yet appeared of any part of the new continent : and the caprice of fame has assigned to him an honour above the renown of the greatest conquerors, that of indelibly impressing his name upon this vast portion of the earth.

1500. On his voyage to the East Indies, Cabral, the Portuguese admiral, discovers Brazil. This undesigned discovery evinces, that independently of the sagacity of Colon, America could no longer have remained in obscurity.

1502. Fourth voyage of Colon, in which he discovers a great part of the continent, and particularly the harbour of Porto-bello.

1513. Vasco Nugnez de Balboa descried, from the mountains of the isthmus, the grand Pacific Ocean ; and he afterwards waded into the waves, and took possession of it in the name of the Spanish monarch. This discovery seems to have terminated the vain expectation that America formed part of Asia.

It seems unnecessary to trace with minuteness the other epochs of discovery in this quarter. In 1515 the continent was explored as far as Rio de Plata ; but even in 1518 little was known concerning its western parts ; and twenty-six years had elapsed since the first voyage of Colon, before the existence was rumoured of the empires, or kingdoms of Mexico and Peru. Hispaniola and Cuba still continued to be the chief seats of the Spanish power. In 1519 Cortez, with eleven small vessels, containing 617 men, proceeds to the conquest of Mexico, which was accomplished in 1521. Magalhaens, at the same time, having explored the Pacific Ocean, the discovery of the western coast of America became a necessary consequence. After many reports concerning the riches of Peru, that country was at length visited in 1526 by Pizarro, in a vessel from Pa-

nama. In 1530 the conquest of Peru was begun by Pizarro, at the head of 36 cavalry and 144 infantry : and in ten years that empire was divided among his followers. In 1543 the first *Spanish viceroy appeared* in Peru.

In NORTH AMERICA the epochs of discovery were more slow.

1497. Giovanni Gaboto, a Venetian called by the English John Cabot, who had received a commission from Henry VII. in 1495, in the view of tracing a nearer passage to India, discovered Newfoundland, so called by his sailors; and inspected the American shore as far as Virginia : but, this land forming merely an obstacle to his wishes, he returned to England.

1500. Corte de Real, a Portuguese captain, in search of a north-west passage, discovered Labrador.

1513. Florida was discovered by Ponce, a Spanish captain.

1534. Francis I. sending a fleet from St. Maloes, to establish a settlement in North America, Cartier the commander, on the day of St. Laurence, discovered the great gulph and river to which he gave the name of that saint. In the following year he sailed about 300 leagues up this noble stream to a great cataract, built a fort, and called the country New France.

1578. Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent for settling lands in America. In 1583 he discovered and took possession of the harbour of St. John, and the country to the south, but was lost on his return.

The voyage of Drake round the world served to kindle the enthusiasm of the English ; and Raleigh obtained a patent similar to that of Gilbert.

1584. Two small vessels dispatched by Raleigh unfortunately bent their course to that country now called North Carolina, instead of reaching the noble bays of Chesapeake or Delaware. These vessels returned to England, with two of the natives : and Elizabeth assigned to this region the name of Virginia, an appellation which became laxly applied to the British settlements in North America, till it was confined to a different country from the original Virginia.

1585. Raleigh sent a small colony under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, who settled in the isle of Roanoke, a most incommodious and useless station, whence they returned in 1586. The account of this settlement illustrated

with excellent prints, was published under the auspices of Raleigh; who made other unsuccessful attempts to colonize the country, and afterwards resigned his patent to some merchants, who were contented with a petty traffic. At the death of Elizabeth, 1603, there was not one Englishman settled in America: and the Spaniards and Portuguese alone had formed any establishment on that vast continent.

The venerable Hakluyt, anxious that his country should partake of the benefit of colonies, procured an association of men of rank and talents for this purpose; and a patent was granted by James I. April the 10th, 1606, that monarch being wholly unconscious that he was about to establish an independent and mighty empire. The bay of Chesapeake was discovered in 1607, and the first lasting settlement was founded at James-Town, in modern Virginia. Captain Smith, who afterwards published an account of his voyages, displayed remarkable spirit, perseverance and enterprise: yet so licentious and improvident were the adventurers in general, and so much had they suffered in consequence thereof, that they were about to return to England in 1610, when Lord De-la-war arrived with a considerable reinforcement: and although the latter remained in the country only a short time, yet his prudent conduct gave such a turn to affairs, as established the colony. Some of the principal events that occurred in Virginia, as well as in the other British colonies, after this period, will be taken notice of when we come to describe them separately.

It may not be amiss briefly to state the epochs of a few other remarkable events in the northern regions of this Continent, as this seems to be the most proper place to introduce them.

1585. Capt. John Davis visited the western coast of Greenland, and discovered Davis's straits; in subsequent voyages, he discovered the island of Disko, and Cumberland strait, and navigated as far to the north as latitude 72° , where he was stopped by fields of ice. 1610. Hudson discovered the straits that bear his, and that inland sea called Hudson's bay. 1616. Capt. Bilot was sent to attempt a N. W. passage to India—and William Baffin sailed with him as a pilot, who on his return published a pompous account of the discovery of Baffin's bay, and various sounds and islands as far north as 78° , all of them perfect-

ly unknown to any preceding or succeeding navigator.—The general line of the Arctic sea, in this quarter, as seen by Mr. Hearne in 1772, and Mr. Mackenzie in 1789, is about latitude 70° , a little higher than which it probably coalesces with what is called in our maps Baffin's bay.

POPULATION. The general population of this immense Continent remains to be the subject of doubtful discussion; some having supposed that it amounted to 150 millions, while others have sunk it 15 millions. The truth lies between the two opinions, and perhaps approaches nearest to the latter. The population of British America is said not to exceed 200,000, and suppose the savages are an equal number, together they amount to 400,000. Supposing the United States to have 6,000,000 and the empire of Mexico 4,000,000 of native race, and 3,000,000 of foreign extract, and you obtain an aggregate of 13,400,000. Peru and Chili can scarcely contain above 7 millions—the other Spanish dominions 2 millions, and Brazil and Paraguay 4 millions: the other parts are mostly wide deserts. The total then amounts to no more than 26,400,000, not equal to the population of a single state in Europe.

NORTH AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES. THIS division of the new continent is bounded on the east by the Atlantic; and on the west by the Great, or Pacific Ocean. On the south it is understood to extend to the vicinity of Panama, the province of Veragua being universally considered as part of North America. The northern limits have not been clearly ascertained; but as it is improbable that a slip of land, on the N. W. of Hudson's Bay, should extend far to the north, the limit may probably be discovered about 74° or 75° . In the mean time 72° degrees may be safely assumed; whence to the southern boundary, about N. lat. $7^{\circ} 30'$, as marked in the map of Lacruz, there will be 641-2

degrees, or 3870 g. miles ; more than 4500 British. The breadth from the promontory of Alaska to the extreme point of Labrador, or the Cape of St. Charles, will exceed the length. If it should be discovered that Greenland is united to the arctic lands of America, as Kamtschatka is, for instance, to Asia, both the length and breadth will be greatly increased.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. In pursuing the arrangement of topics, here adopted in the general description of a continent, the first which occurs is the ancient population ; but our knowledge of the American languages is still so imperfect that the subject is involved in great doubts. None of the native nations of America displays the smallest trace of the oblique eyes, and other remarkable features by which the inhabitants of eastern Asia are distinguished. Far from this, Pallas, Lesseps, Tooke, and other skilful inquirers, have pronounced that the Techuks and Koriaks undoubtedly proceeded from America, as they have not one Asiatic lineament : or we must suppose that these Asiatic tribes have emigrated to America, as it is said that their country was once very populous, and is now but thinly inhabited.

LANGUAGE. The languages are various. The European settlements speak the languages of the several mother countries, in some instances a little corrupted. It is to be regretted that neither in North or South America, have the languages of the natives been compared, and classed with requisite care and precision. Travelers, however, in the internal parts of N. A. particularly Charlevoix and Carver, assert that there are but four mother tongues among all the savage tribes dispersed from Labrador to Florida, viz. those of the Siouse or Naudowessis, the Hurons or Iroquois, the Algonquins or Chipewees, and the Cherokees and Chickesaws ; that with a knowledge of these languages, a person might travel 1500 leagues of the country, without an interpreter, and make himself understood by above one hundred different tribes, who have as many different dialects. These four primitive languages have little or no affinity to one another, as is sufficiently evident from the pronunciation alone. The Siouse or Naudowessi Indian hisses rather than speaks. His language is exceedingly soft, without any gutturals, and may be easily learned. It prevails altogether on the

west of the Mississippi, and extends perhaps to the shores of the pacific ocean. The Huron knows none of the labial letters, speaks through the throat, and aspirates almost all the syllables. The Algonquin pronounces with a softer tone, and speaks more naturally : his language has not the same force as that of the Huron, but it possesses more sweetness and elegance. All these languages have this in common with those of Asia, that they abound in bold and expressive figures.

RELIGION. The ruling religion in North America is the Christian ; the Protestant, under various denominations in the United States ; the Roman Catholic in the Spanish dominions, and among the French in Canada. The accounts that the Missionaries and travellers give of the religion of the native nations are various and unsatisfactory. A distinguished Missionary asserts that the Iroquois or six nations have no form of religious worship—and when they undertake to discourse on the first man, and the origin of the world, they utter so many absurdities, and in so confused a manner, that it is impossible to comprehend their meaning. They have some ideas of a future life ; they believe for instance that those who have been great hunters, or formidable warriors, will pass after death into regions abounding with all manner of fruits and animals, where they will be supremely happy and contented ; and, on the contrary, that those who have led wicked lives, and have rendered no public service to his village or canton, will be transported to a barren country, where he will suffer every evil. Many of the Indian nations who live in the south, worship the sun. The Poutewatamies ascend to the top of their cabbins, at sun rise, and after several genuflexions, attended with various motions of the arms and head, present an offering of venison and Indian cake to that luminary. This kind of peace offering sacrificed to the sun or to a Manitou (the name by which the Autawaes distinguish the spirit that presides over them) are the only religious acts that have been discovered among the savages.

CLIMATE. The climate of North America is extremely various as may be conceived in a region extending from near the Equator to the arctic circle. In general, the heat of summer and the cold of winter are more intense than in most parts of the ancient continent. Near Hud-

son's Bay Fahrenheit's thermometer has risen in July to 85° , and sunk in January to 45° , below 0. In Georgia it has risen to 100° , in the summer, in the shade, and has been observed as high as 86° , falling the next day as low as 38° , in the winter. The predominant winds are from the west, and south west—and the severest cold is from the N. W. The middle states are remarkable for the unsteadiness of the weather, particularly the quick transitions from heat to cold. Snow falls plentifully in Virginia, but seldom lies above a few days; yet after a mild day, James River has in one night been filled with ice. These surprising changes are owing to a sudden shifting of the wind to the N. W. and blowing steadily for some hours from that cold quarter. South Carolina, Georgia and Florida are subject to unsufferable heat, furious whirlwinds, hurricanes, overwhelming floods from the ocean, tremendous thunder and lightning. These sudden transitions are every where pernicious to the human frame. From the few observations that have been made on the climate in the western parts of North America, it appears to be more temperate and less affected with sudden variations. That of California seems in general to be moderate and pleasant, though not free from intense heat in summer. In latitude 59° , the land has a most barren and wintry appearance even in June: the gloom is increased by frequent fogs, and La Perouse observes that the glaciers seem perpetual.

INLAND SEAS. Among the inland seas of North America may be mentioned the gulphs of Mexico, California, and St. Lawrence; with Hudson's Bay, or rather Hudson's Sea, and what is called the strait of Davis, which is probably a sea of communication between the Atlantic and the arctic oceans. The existence of Baffin's Bay is doubtful.

Of all these seas the gulf of Mexico is the most celebrated, as presenting at its entrance that grand archipelago of North American islands, called the West Indies, and the estuary of the great river Mississippi. From this gulf a singular current sets towards the N. E. called the gulf stream, and passes to the banks of Newfoundland. It is distinguished from other parts of the ocean by the gulf weed; is eight or ten degrees warmer; never sparkles in

the night ; and when it arrives in cool latitudes produces thick fogs.

The opposite shore presents the gulf of California, which seems an estuary of two large rivers. The gulf of St. Lawrence is the well known estuary of a river of the same name, generally frozen from December to April. This noble gulf is closed by the island of Newfoundland, and by numerous sand banks, particularly what is called the Great Bank. This celebrated fishing station is more than 400 miles in length, by about 140 in breadth. The greatest number of cod fish, taken by a single fisherman, is twelve thousand, but the average is seven thousand : the largest fish was four feet three inches in length, and weighed forty-six pounds. More than 500 English vessels commonly fish on the bank ; and a considerable number from the United States.

Hudson Sea may be considered as extending from the entrance of Hudson Strait, to its western extremity, that is thirty degrees of long. which in lat. 60° , will be 900 g. miles, exceeding the Baltic in length as well as breadth. The shores are generally rocky and precipitous, and the climate is almost the perpetual abode of winter, the hot weather in June being brief though violent. The large tract of territory on the south of this sea is the property of the Hudson's Bay Company, whose chief profits are derived from furs. This sea has been repeatedly explored for a N. W. passage in vain.

LAKES. The lakes Superior, Michigan and Huron, with their connecting straits, form one large inland sea, which might be called the sea of Canada. This expansion of water is about 500 miles in length and more than 180 at its greatest breadth, extending from the latitude of 42° , to 48° . According to the French charts, lake Superior is not less than 1500 miles in circumference. The greater part of the coast consists of rocks and uneven ground. The water is pure and transparent ; and the bottom generally composed of large rocks. There are several islands in it, one of which called Minong is about 60 miles in length. More than thirty rivers fall into this lake. It is connected by a strait of about 40 miles in length, with lake Huron, which being the second in magnitude, is estimated to be about 1000 miles in circumference ; and it is united with lake Michigan, the third arm of this inland sea

by another strait, called the strait of Michillimakinak. This last lake is about 280 miles long by about 40 miles broad, and lies wholly within the limits of the United States. But to the north of these is the lake of the Woods, which must not be omitted as it forms the north-western boundary of the United States. It is situated on the communication between lake Superior and the upper lakes Winnipeg and Bourbon in the lat. of $49^{\circ} 37'$, N. and long. of $94^{\circ} 31'$ W. from London. After passing lakes Superior, Michigan and Huron, we reach lake Erie, which communicates with them by the straits of Detroit, where the Americans have a garrison. Lake Erie is near 300 miles long from E. to W. and about 40 miles in its broadest part. Near the west end there are several islands, so infested with rattle snakes as to render it unsafe to land on them. The navigation of this lake is accounted more dangerous than that of any other, though storms on all of them are often as formidable as those on the ocean. It discharges itself through the river Niagara, and over the tremendous falls of that river into the west end of lake Ontario; and this last which is the least of the five great lakes of Canada, being about 600 miles in circumference, pours its waters through the river Cataragui into the great river St. Lawrence.

The lake of Winnipeg or Winipic, may also aspire to the name of an inland sea; but it yields considerably to the great Slave lake, or rather sea, a recent discovery, from which Mackenzie's river extends its course to the Arctic ocean. The Slave sea, according to Arrowsmith's maps, is about 200 miles in length by 100 at its greatest breadth.

The smaller lakes shall be briefly described in the divisions of territory to which they more directly belong.

RIVERS. Under this head we shall only take notice of the great rivers St. Lawrence and Mississippi, reserving the other principal streams to the states in which they are most known.—The river *St. Lawrence* which rises in lake Ontario and running through lower Canada, empties into a gulph of its own name, is universally regarded as the second in North America; being not less than 90 miles wide at its mouth, and navigable for ships of the line as far as Quebec, a distance of 400 miles from the sea. Near Quebec it is five miles in breadth, and at Montreal from two to four. Above this there are rapids

which render the navigation dangerous, but in boats it may be passed to near Kingston and lake Ontario, 743 miles from the sea. But the navigation is interrupted several months in the year by the intense cold of the climate. The *Mississippi* is the largest river that is known in North America. It is the great channel that receives the waters of the Ohio, the Illinois, and their numerous branches from the east, and of the Missouri, the Akanza and Red river, and other inferior streams on the west. The northernmost and most distant branch of its source is in lat. $49^{\circ} 37'$, and long. $94^{\circ} 31'$, W. from London. Its length to its entrance into the Gulf of Mexico, is supposed to be 3000 miles. In this river, in lat. $44^{\circ} 30'$, are the falls of St. Anthony, where the stream, more than 250 yards wide, falls perpendicular about 30 feet. But the Missouri is so much larger and bolder than the Mississippi where they unite in lat. 39° , that some have supposed that the former is the principal stream. It has been ascended by French traders upwards of 1200 miles, and from its depth and breadth at that distance, appeared to be navigable much higher. In lat. $47^{\circ} 32'$, and long. $101^{\circ} 25'$, it makes a considerable bend to the south of west.

MOUNTAINS. The mountains of North America are far from rivalling the Andes in the south. Some irregular ranges pervade the Isthmus, but it seems mere theory to consider them connected with the Andes, as they have neither the same character nor direction. On the west of the Province of Darien, a considerable chain passes N. and S. which may be considered as a natural boundary between North and South America.

On the west, so far as discovered, a range of mountains proceeds from New Mexico in a northern direction, and passing on the west of the lakes, joins the ridge called the Stoney Mountains, which extend to the vicinity of the Arctic ocean. The Stoney Mountains are said to be about 3500 feet above their base, which may perhaps be 3000 feet above the sea. In general, from the account of navigators who have visited the N. W. coast, it seems to resemble that of Norway, being a wild alpine country of great extent; while the shore presents innumerable creeks and islands. This tract, from the Stoney Mountains and Mackenzie's river westward to the source of the Oregon and Beering's strait, may perhaps be found to contain the high-

est mountains in North America, when completely explored by the eye of science. On the north-east, Greenland, Labrador, and the countries around Hudson Sea, present irregular masses covered with eternal snow, with black naked peaks, resembling in form the spires of the alps, but of far inferior elevation, mountains generally decreasing in height towards the pole.

The most celebrated mountains in North America are those called the Apalachian, passing through the territory of the United States from the S. W. to the N. E. According to the best maps, they commence on the north of Georgia, where they give source to many rivers running south to the gulf of Mexico; and to the Tennessee and others running north. There are several collateral ridges, as the Iron or Bald Mountains, the White Oak Mountains, and others; the exterior skirt on the N. W. being the Cumberland Mountains. The Apalachian chain thence extends through the western territory of Virginia, accompanied with its collateral ridges; the breadth of the whole being often seventy miles, and proceeds through Pennsylvania, then passes Hudson river; and afterwards rises to greater elevation, but seems to expire in the country of New Brunswick.

The Apalachian chain may thus extend about 900 g. miles, a length unrivalled by any European mountains, except the Norwegian alps. In no chain perhaps are the collateral ridges more distinct; and a naturalist would at once pronounce that the central, or highest, must be granitic, the next schistose, and the exterior belts calcareous.

Before we review the European possessions and the United States of North America, it will not be amiss to take some notice of the northern extremity, and the central parts of this quarter of the globe, which remain under the dominion of the native tribes, and are yet very imperfectly known.

GREENLAND.

THE discovery of this extensive region, whether continental or insular, was effected by the people of Iceland in the tenth century; the distance, according to the best maps,

being about eight degrees of longitude in lat. 66° , or nearly 200 g. miles. The intercourse between this colony and Denmark was maintained till the beginning of the fifteenth century, the last of seventeen bishops being named in 1406: and in that century, the colony appears to have been completely imprisoned by the frozen ocean; while on the west a range of impassable mountains and plains, covered by perpetual ice, precluded all access. The ancient settlement contained several churches and monasteries, the names and positions of which may still be traced. On the west some ruins of churches have also been discovered. A pious Norwegian clergyman, named Egede, being deeply impressed with the melancholy account he had heard or read of this colony, in 1721 proceeded to the western shore, where he continued till 1735, preaching the gospel to the natives, his benevolent example having been since followed by several missionaries. The sect called Moravians began their settlements about thirty years after. It is said that the country is inhabited as far as 76° ; but the Danish and Moravian settlements are chiefly in the S. W.

This dreary country may be said to consist of rocks, ice, and snow; but in the southern parts there are some small junipers, willows and birch. There are rein-deer, and some dogs resembling wolves, with arctic foxes, and polar bears. Hares are common; and the walrus, and five kinds of seals, frequent the shores. The birds, particularly sea and water fowl, are tolerably numerous; as are the fish; and the insects exceed ninety species.

The short summer is very warm, but foggy; and the northern lights diversify the gloom of winter. What is called the frost smoke bursts from cracks in the frozen ocean. The natives are short, with long black hair, small eyes, and flat faces, being a branch of the Iskimos, or American Samoieds: it is supposed that they do not now exceed ten thousand, the number having been greatly reduced by the small-pox. Their canoes, in which one man proceeds to kill seals, are of a singular construction, and have sometimes been wafted as far as the Orkneys. The highest mountains are on the west side; and what is called the Stag's Horn is visible from sea at the distance of forty or sixty leagues. The winter is very severe; and the rocks often burst by the intensity of the frost. Above 66° , the

sun does not set in the longest days, and at 64° , is not four hours beneath the horizon.

HUDSON'S BAY.

THE inland sea commonly called Hudson's Bay was explored in 1610 ; and a charter for planting and improving the country, and carrying on trade, was granted to a company in 1670. The Hudson's Bay Company has since retained a claim to most extensive territories, on the west, south, and east, of that inland sea, supposed to extend from 70° to 115° ; and, allowing the degree only thirty miles, the length will be 1350 g. miles, and the medial breadth about 350.

In the south, James' Bay stretches inland about 300 miles by about 150 in breadth ; and the most valuable settlements are in that vicinity, as Albany fort, Moose fort, and East Main factory. Farther to the south, and on the confines of Upper Canada, are Brunswick house, Frederick house, and some others, which, perhaps, belong to the North West Company. In the North, Severn house is at the mouth of a large river, which seems to flow from the lake of Winnipic. York fort stands on Nelson river ; and still farther to the north is Churchill fort, which seems the farthest settlement in that direction. The most important rivers are the Nelson and Saskashawin, and the Severn ; the comparative course of the latter scarcely exceeding 400 B. miles, but of great breadth and depth. In the south the Albany, Moose, Abitib, and Harricana, are the most considerable ; but all the rivers are impeded with falls and shoals. The sea of Hudson commonly presents bold rocky shores ; but at intervals there are marshes and large beaches.

Even in lat. 57° , the winters are extremely severe ; the ice on the rivers is eight feet thick, and brandy coagulates. The rocks burst with a horrible noise, equal to that of heavy artillery, and the splinters are thrown to an amazing distance. The aurora borealis diffuses a variegated splendour, which equals that of the full moon ; and the stars sparkle with fiery redness. The northern indigenes are Iskimos ; but there are other savages in the south : and the factories are visited by several tribes. It has been said

that the trade to these regions might be made more profitable to the nation, if the monopoly were removed. The company employ annually only four ships, and 130 seamen in the trade. They export thither British manufactures to the amount of 16,000*l.* and import from thence, furs to the value of 29,000*l.* sterling.

LABRADOR.

THIS large extent of coast was so named by the Portuguese navigator who made the first discovery. There were here only a few factories, till the Moravian clergy formed little settlements, particularly at Nain, about 1764. The natives seem to be chiefly Iskimos, and their manners are very filthy. He who wishes to study the manners of bears may here find ample satisfaction. At a cataract, surrounded with alders, spruces, firs, larches, birch, and aspin, many salmon ascend, and the bears assemble in numbers to catch their favourite prey. Some dive after the fish, and do not appear again till at the distance of seventy or eighty yards. Cartwright counted thirty-two white bears, and three black ones. Rein-deer also abound, and their venison is excellent. So far as discovered, Labrador is generally hilly, and even mountainous. The eastern coast exhibits a most barren and iron bound appearance. Rivers, brooks, lakes, pools, and ponds, are abundant, rich in fish, and frequented by innumerable birds. Inland the air is milder; there are many trees, and some symptoms of fertility. The plants are wild celery, scurvy-grass, sorrel, and Indian salad. The birds are common to arctic regions, and the animals are mostly of the fur-bearing kind. The natives are mountaineers and Iskimos; the former resembling gypsies, with somewhat of French features from a mixture of Canadian blood. They chiefly live on reindeer, and also kill foxes, martins, and beavers. They live in wigwams, a kind of tents covered with deer skin and birch bark: and are a sort of Roman Catholics, being anxious to visit the priests at Quebec. The Iskimos are the same people with the Greenlanders. They use sledges drawn by dogs, as in Asia. The only attempts hitherto made towards trade, has been in the fishery. The exports

annually to Great Britain, and other parts of Europe amount to 49,000*l.* sterling.

CENTRAL PARTS.

TILL the journey of Mr. Hearne, an officer of the Hudson's Bay Company, in 1771, and the more difficult and laborious enterprises of Mr. Mackenzie in 1789 and 1793 ; little was known concerning the interior parts of North America.

Mr. Hearne performed his journeys in the North in the years 1769—1772 ; but his book did not appear till 1795. He proceeded from Fort Prince of Wales, or Churchill, and explored a group of lakes, called Doobant and other names, near Chesterfield inlet ; and, farther to the west, a lake of great extent, which he calls Athapuscow, the centre being in long. 125°, lat. 62° ; evidently the Slave lake of Mr. Mackenzie, in the same latitude, but long. 115°. On the 14th of July 1771, he arrived at the Copper river, and on the 17th he was within sight of the sea. “ The tide being out, the water in the river was perfectly fresh ; but I am certain, says our traveller, of its being the sea, or some branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and seal-skins which the Iskimos had at their tents, and also by the number of seals which I saw on the ice. At the mouth of the river the sea is full of islands and shoals, as far as I could see with the assistance of a good pocket telescope.” He found the Iskimos here of a dirty copper colour, and rather shorter in stature than those to the south. The kettles are made of lapis ollaris, of a mixed brown and white ; and their hatchets and knives are of copper. The dogs have sharp erect ears, pointed noses, and bushy tails, being a fine breed of that sort. Many kinds of sea-fowl were observed ; and in the ponds and marshes swans, geese, curlews, and plovers. The quadrupeds are musk cattle, rein-deer, bears, wolves, wolvereens, foxes, alpine hares, squirrels, ermines, mice. Copper is found here in lumps, and is beaten out by the help of fire and two stones. Upon his return, Mr. Hearne passed farther to the west ; and on the 24th of December, 1771, he arrived at the north side of the great lake of Athapuscow, or about 120 leagues in

length, from east to west ; and 20 wide. It is stored with great quantities of pike, trout, perch, barbel, and two other sorts of fish called by the natives tittameg and methy. On the southern shore of Athapuscow, there are many wild cattle and moose deer, the former, particularly the bulls, being larger than the English black cattle.

Mr. Mackenzie's journeys were of yet more consequence. In June 1789 he embarked in a canoe at fort Chepiwian, on the south of the Lake of the Hills, and proceeded along the Slave river called by Hearne Athapuscow to the Slave lake, whence he entered a river now called after his own name, pursuing it till he reached the Arctic ocean. The Slave lake he found covered with ice in the month of June, and the chief fish were carp, white fish, trout, and pike. The banks were covered with spruce, pine, white birch, poplars. On the 11th of July the sun remained all night considerably above the horizon ; and soon after he seems to have reached the sea, in which, near the wide estuary of the river, he observed several whales. Though so far to the north, there seem to be other savages besides Iskimos ; and it would appear from their report that there is another large river on the western side of the Rocky Mountains, which also joins the Arctic Ocean. On the 12th September 1789, our author finished his first voyage, which had occupied one hundred and two days. A complete confirmation thence arises that there is no northern communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific ; except at so high a latitude that it must be impeded by perpetual ice.

Equally important and interesting was Mr. Mackenzie's second voyage. Our enterprising traveller left fort Chepiwian on the 10th October, 1792, and proceeded by land and water till he reached the river Oregan, Columbia, or the Great River of the West. After proceeding a considerable way he returned against the stream, and then travelled to the Pacific Ocean by land ; and reached one of the numerous inlets in lat. $52^{\circ} 20'$. On the west of the Unjiga beautiful scenery was observed, interspersed with hill and lawn, with groves of poplars, and enlivened with vast herds of elks on the uplands, and of buffaloes on the plains. That fierce species called the grizzly bear was also seen. The cold was often extreme, rather from the height of the general level than that of the mountains, which does not

exceed 1500 feet. Among the birds observed were blue jays, yellow birds, and beautiful humming birds. Beavers are common, and tracks of moose deer were remarked. Towards the Pacific the natives are fairer than in the other parts of North America; and one man was at least six feet four inches in height. Their eyes are not dark, like those of the other Indians, but grey, with a tinge of red. The men wear only a robe made of the bark of the cedar tree, rendered as fine as hemp, sometimes with borders of red and yellow threads; and the women add a short apron. Some of their canoes are forty-five feet in length, the gunwale being inlaid with the teeth of the sea otter, not with human teeth, as Captain Cook supposed. In September, 1793, he returned to fort Chepiwian, after an absence of eleven months.

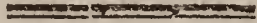
By the traditions of the western Indians they came from Siberia; while intelligent travellers, on the contrary, consider the Techuks as proceeding from America: but such interchanges of nations are not unfrequent in barbarous periods. The tribes near the source of the Missouri are said to be from the south, and their progress N. W. probably retiring from the Spanish power. The language of the Natchez, and other nations in the Spanish territory, has been sufficiently illustrated; and in the isthmus the dialects are said to be various, and radically distinct, yet probably, on a nearer and more skilful examination, would be found to approach the Mexican.

WESTERN COAST.

THE Russians may be regarded as the first discoverers of the north-western shores of America. The isles between Asia and this continent in their most recent maps are styled the Aleutian Isles.

This coast seems to be chiefly alpine; in which respect, and in its numerous creeks and isles. it bears no small resemblance to Norway. The most remarkable mountain seems to be that called St. Elias by the Russian navigators; and which, it is affirmed, has been visible at sea at no less a

distance than about sixty leagues. At *Port des Francois*, lat. $58^{\circ} 37'$, La Perouse observes that the summits are covered with perpetual snow, and immense glaciers wind through the cavities. The lofty mountains, which La Perouse computes at more than ten thousand feet in height, terminate at Cross Sound ; but the alpine ridges continue, though of smaller elevation, and probably extend with few interruptions as far as California. Mr. Mackenzie in lat. 53° , and Vancouver in a more southern latitude, found the same mountainous appearances.



BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

Canada.—New Brunswick.—Nova Scotia.—Cape Breton.—Newfoundland—The Bermudas.

THOSE parts of North America which belong to Great Britain are extensive, and of considerable importance, though so thinly peopled, and in such a disadvantageous climate, that they sink into insignificance, when compared with the great and flourishing colonies belonging to Spain, or with the territories of the United States. The inhabitants of the former have been estimated at seven millions, and those of the states at six ; while those of the British possessions scarcely exceed two hundred thousand souls, and the far greater part are French and natives.

DIVISIONS. The chief of these possessions is Canada, now divided into two provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada ; the former being the western division, on the north of the great lakes or sea of Canada ; while the lower division is on the river St. Lawrence towards the east, and contains Quebec the capital, and the chief city of the British settlements.

On the east of Canada, to the south of the river St. Lawrence, is Nova Scotia ; which in 1784 was divided into two provinces, that of Nova Scotia in the south, and New Brunswick in the north.

What is called New Britain comprehends the most northern parts towards Hudson's Bay, and the coast of Labrador. The large island of Newfoundland; that called Cape Breton; and the neighbouring isle St. John; complete the chief denominations of British territory. But in the English maps, while Greenland is assigned to Denmark, all the other most northern parts of America, on the east and on the west, as far south as the port of Sir Francis Drake, are impressed with the colour of British territory. By the right of prior, or at least of more complete and precise discovery, the western coast might also be considered as belonging to England, according to the established usage of all European nations.

CANADA.

EXTENT. THIS country is computed to extend from the gulph of St. Lawrence, and isle of Anticosti in the east to the lake of Winnipeg in the west, or from long. 64° to 97° west from London, thirty-three degrees, which in that latitude may be about 1200 g. miles. The breadth, from the lake of Erie, in the south, or lat. 43° , may extend to lat. 49° , or 360 g. miles; but the medial breadth is not above 200.—The first European settlement was made by the French in 1608. During a century and a half that they possessed Canada, they rambled far to the west, in quest of furs and converts to the Catholic religion, but made small advance in improving the country. Quebec being conquered by Wolfe, 1759, Canada was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, 1763.

RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. The prevailing religion is the Roman Catholic. It was introduced by the first European settlers with all the glare and pomp that distinguishes the Roman Church, and adapts it to impress the minds of savages with reverence: these, with the zeal and assiduity of numerous missionaries, have given it a considerable extension among the natives. The priests are still attentive to the instruction and the morals of their Indian converts, among some of whom they have introduced a

considerable degree of subordination and industry. The Protestant religion, under all its denominations, is equally patronized by the British government, but its teachers are certainly more indifferent about its propagation, for it has lost more proselytes than it has gained in Canada. But the intercourse among the heads of departments and communities is conducted with so much prudence and politeness as to preserve a general harmony, and to inspire the people with a due respect for civil authority.

The government is energetic, while it is tempered with such uniform justice as to render the people secure in all their religious and civil rights.—There is one governor general who superintends all the British possessions in North America, and a lieutenant governor to each of the four provinces into which the territories are divided.—In the year 1790 Canada was erected into two separate governments, by an act of parliament, and styled Upper and Lower Canada. Each has a lieutenant governor, a legislative council, and a house of assembly.—The governor and council are appointed by the crown, the latter during life, and the assembly are chosen by the freeholders.—The assembly are elected for four years, and meet annually for the dispatch of business. The seat of government for Upper Canada, is at Newark, on lake Ontario, and for Lower Canada, at Quebec, on the river St. Lawrence.—Weekly courts, called courts of request, are held by two justices of the peace, who have cognizance of all demands under eight dollars.—There are also district courts, held every three months, in which a judge presides, and trials are by juries of twelve men, without appeal, in all causes not exceeding sixty dollars. All sums above that value are determined before the chief justice, and two associate judges who make an annual circuit through the province—and from this judicatory there may be an appeal to the governor and council.—The people manage all their own local concerns, such as the election of constables, path-masters, and other town officers. There are no duties on goods imported or exported, except a light impost on spirits, wines, and a few other luxuries ; no quit-rents ; and no taxes, except an inconsiderable county rate. In short, it is a well known fact, that the British nation does not derive a revenue from these provinces equal to what is expended in protecting and governing the same.—The population is increasing rapidly, as

there have been, and still are, great emigrations from the United States into Upper Canada.—The only revenue arising to Great Britain from this colony seems to proceed from an advantageous commerce, which is said to employ about seven thousand tons of shipping.—The expences of the civil list are supposed to be 25,000*l.* of which one half is paid by Great Britain, and the other by the provinces, from duties on the importation of spirits, wine, and a few other articles.—The military establishment, with repairs of forts, &c. is stated at 100,000*l.* and the like sum for presents to the savages, and salaries to officers employed among them for trade, &c. in Upper Canada. But the advantages of the commerce which increases annually are thought to counterbalance these expences. The exports and imports have increased sixfold in about thirty years, the former principally if not wholly of domestic produce.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the settlers in Canada are considerably tinged with the French gaiety and urbanity. The French women in Canada can generally read and write, and are thus superior to the men; but both preserve their ancient superstition, and are devoted to their priests. They universally use the French language, English being confined to the acts of government and the few British settlers, but will finally become prevalent.

The chief town is Quebec, built on a lofty point of land on the north-west side of the great river St. Lawrence; which in the neighbourhood is sufficiently deep and spacious to float more than one hundred sail of the line. The upper town, on a rock of limestone, is of considerable natural strength, and well fortified; but the lower town towards the river is open to every attack. A large garrison is maintained; but five thousand soldiers would be necessary to man the works. The inhabitants are supposed to be ten thousand, about two thirds being French; and the presence of the governor, courts, and garrison, conspire to render it gay and lively. The lower town is mostly inhabited by traders and mariners. The houses are commonly of stone, small, ugly, and inconvenient; but the new part of the governor's house, for there is no citadel, is upon an improved plan. The Monasteries are almost extinct; yet there are three nunneries. The market is well supplied; and the little carts are often drawn by dogs. The vicinity presents most sublime and beauti-

ful scenery ; and the falls of the river Montmorenci are particularly celebrated.

Montreal is a neat town, on the east side of a considerable island, formed by the river St. Lawrence at its junction with the river Utawas, which is the boundary between Lower and Upper Canada, about 150 miles above Quebec. Vessels of 100 tons may navigate within 70 miles of lake Ontario ; but for large vessels the navigation is tedious and difficult. This town contains about twelve hundred houses, and probably six thousand souls ; with six churches, four of which are Roman Catholic, and four convents. The chief trade is in furs, which are thence sent to Quebec for England. The canoes are chiefly employed on the Utawas, whence the fur traders proceed across to lake Winnipeg.

At the grand egress of the river St. Lawrence, on the lake Ontario, near what is called the lake of a thousand islands, stands the town of Kingston, remarkable from its position as well as the rich settlement in its vicinity. The forts of Niagara and Detroit belong to the southern or American side of the boundary. The little town of Trois Rivières, or Three Rivers, stands between Quebec and Montreal, and is chiefly remarkable for the resort of the savages : but though it contains little more than 250 houses, it has always been considered as a place of importance. Sorelle was founded in 1787 for the American loyalists, but contains only one hundred scattered houses : it is at the distance of fifteen leagues from Montreal towards Quebec ; and the chief business is ship building.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The principal exports are wheat, flour, furs and peltries, with some fish ; potash, and American ginseng. The imports are spirits, wines, tobacco, sugar, salt, and provisions for the troops. Except some linen, and coarse woollen cloths, manufactured articles are chiefly imported from England.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The extremes of heat and cold are amazing ; the thermometer in July and August rising to 96, while in winter the mercury freezes. The snow begins in November ; and in January the frost is so intense that it is impossible to be out of doors for any time without the risk of what is called a frost bite, which endangers the limb : and the warm intervals only increase the sensation and the jeopardy. But winter, as at Petersburg, is the season of amusement ; and the sledges, drawn

by one or two horses, afford a pleasant and speedy conveyance. Several stoves are placed in the halls of the houses whence flues pass to the apartments ; and there are double windows and doors. On going abroad the whole body is covered with furs, except the eyes and nose. In May the thaw generally comes suddenly, the ice on the river bursting with the noise of cannon ; and its passage to the sea is terrific, especially when a pile of ice crashes against a rock. Spring is summer : and vegetation instantaneous. The month of September is one of the most pleasant.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. The face of the country is generally mountainous and woody ; but there are savannas, and plains of great beauty, chiefly towards Upper Canada. In the lower province the soil mostly consists of a loose blackish earth of ten or twelve inches, incumbent on cold clay. This thin mould is however very fertile, and manure was seldom or never used by the French settlers ; but of late marl has been employed, and is found in considerable quantities on the shores of the river St. Lawrence. A little tobacco is cultivated for private use, with many culinary vegetables, and considerable crops of grain, wheat being reckoned among the exports : a kind of wine is indigenous, but the grapes are sour, until touched by the frost. Raspberries are also indigenous ; and there are good currants and gooseberries. A great variety of trees is found in the forests ; beech, oak, elm, ash, pine, sycamore, chesnut, walnut, &c. The sugar maple tree also abounds, and the sugar is generally used in the country.

The great river St. Lawrence has been already described in the general view of North America. The Utawas is the most important of all its tributary streams, issuing from various lakes, towards the centre of Canada : its waters are of a bright greenish colour, while the St. Lawrence is muddy. Many rivers of smaller consequence flow into the river St. Lawrence from the north. The mountains have not been examined by any geologist, who could indicate their ranges or illustrate their structure. The chief ridge seems to be in the northern part of the province, in a direction S. W. and N. E. giving source to the many streams which flow S. E. while a few pass to Hudson's Bay. But there are many mountains between Quebec and the sea, while towards the Utawas only a few are scattered, and to the S. W. there are ample plains. The chief singularities

in zoology are the moose, the beaver, and some other animals, for which Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoology may be consulted. The rein-deer appears in the northern part, and the puma and lynx are not unknown. Both the Canadas are much infested with rattle-snakes. The humming-bird is not uncommon at Quebec. The mineralogy is of little consequence ; and even iron seems to be rare. There are said to be lead mines which produce some silver ; and it is probable that copper may be found, as it appears in the S. W. of lake Superior. Coal abounds in the island of Cape Breton, but this valuable mineral has not been discovered in Canada. The chief natural curiosities seem to be the grand lakes, rivers, and cataracts. Among the latter the celebrated falls of Niagara are chiefly on the side of Upper Canada, the river being there 600 yards wide, and the fall 142 feet. A small island lies between the falls : and that on the side of the States is 350 yards wide, while the height is 163 feet : from the great fall a constant cloud ascends, which may sometimes be seen at an incredible distance ; and the whole scene is truly tremendous. About 2 miles above these falls, a spring has been discovered that emits gas, or inflammable air, which, when confined in a pipe, and a flame applied to it, will boil the water in a tea kettle in 15 minutes. Whether this may be applied by machinery to useful purposes time will determine.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

THE ancient province of Nova Scotia was granted by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, afterwards earl of Stirling. It was afterwards seized by the French, who seem indeed to have been the first possessors, and by whom it was called Acadie ; but it was surrendered to England by the treaty of Utrecht 1713. In 1784, it was divided into two provinces, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. In the former there are two considerable bays, and a river of some length, called St. John's ; while that of St. Croix divides New Brunswick from the province of Main, belonging to the United States. The river of St. John is navigable for vessels of fifty tons about sixty miles ; and for boats about two hundred ; the tide flowing about

eighty. The fish are salmon, bass, and sturgeon; and the banks enriched by the annual freshets, are often fertile, level, and covered with large trees. This river affords a common and near route to Quebec. There are many lakes, among which the Grand Lake is 30 miles long, and about nine broad. The great chain of Apalachian mountains passes on the N. W. of this province, probably expiring at the gulf of St. Lawrence. The capital is Frederick-town on the river St. John, about ninety miles from its estuary. St. Ann's is almost opposite; and there are some other settlements nearer the bay of Fundi, with a fort called Howe. There is a tribe of savages in the vicinity called the Marechites, estimated at 140 fighting men. The chief products are timber and fish.

NOVA SCOTIA.

THIS province is about 300 miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, being inferior in size to New Brunswick. There are several considerable rivers, among which that of Annapolis is navigable fifteen miles, for ships of 100 tons. The bay of Fundi, between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, extends fifty leagues inland; the ebb and flowing of the tide being from forty-five to sixty feet. The capital is Halifax, on the bay of Chebucto, well situated for the fishery, with communications, by land and water, with other parts of this province and New Brunswick. There is a good harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war, employed in protecting the fishing vessels, is laid up in the winter. The town is entrenched with forts of timber, and is said to contain fifteen or sixteen thousand inhabitants, a superior population to that of Quebec. Shelburn, towards the S. W. once contained six hundred families; Guisbury about 250. The harbour of Annapolis is excellent; but it is an inconsiderable hamlet. During a great part of the year the air is foggy and unhealthy; and for four or five months intensely cold. There are many forests; and the soil is generally thin and barren, though fertile on the banks of the rivers, in grass, hemp, and flax; but supplies of grain are sent from England. The Micmacs, an Indian tribe of about 300 fighting men, dwell to the east of Hali-

fax. Britain sends to these provinces linen and woollen cloths, and other articles to the amount of about 30,000*l*. and receives timber and fish worth about 50,000*l*. The chief fishery is that of cod on the cape Sable-coast. Near cape Canco there are remarkable cliffs of white gypsum. About twenty-three leagues from that cape is the Isle de Sable, or of Sand, consisting wholly of that substance, mixed with white transparent stones, the hills being milk-white cones, and some 146 feet above the sea. This strange isle has ponds of fresh water ; with junipers, blueberries, and cranberries, and some grass and vetches, which serve to support a few horses, cows, and hogs. The bay of Fundi presents an infinite variety of picturesque and sublime scenery.

ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

THIS island is attached to the province of Lower Canada, though divided from Nova Scotia only by a strait of one mile in breadth. It is about a hundred miles in length ; and according to the French authors was discovered at a very early period, about A. D. 1500, by the Normans and Bretons, who navigated these seas ; and being supposed a part of the continent was called cape Breton. They did not however take possession of it till 1713, when they erected fort Dauphin : the harbour being found difficult. Louisburg was built in 1720, the settlers being chiefly from Europe, as the Acadians, or French of Nova Scotia, did not choose to leave that country. In 1758 Cape Breton was taken by Gen. Amherst : and has since remained subject to the British crown. The climate is cold and foggy, not only from the proximity of Newfoundland, but from numerous lakes and forests. The soil is mere moss, and has been found unfit for agriculture. The fur trade is inconsiderable, but the fishery very important, this island being esteemed the chief seat ; and the value of this trade, while in the French possession, was computed at a million sterling. There is a very extensive bed of coal in this island, in a horizontal direction, not more than six or eight feet below the surface ; but it has been chiefly used as ballast : in

one of the pits a fire was kindled by accident, and remains unextinguished.

The island of St. John is at no great distance to the west of Cape Breton, being about sixty miles in length by thirty in breadth, and is attached to the province of Nova Scotia. The French inhabitants, about four thousand, surrendered, with Cape Breton, in 1758. It is said to be fertile with several streams. A lieutenant-governor resides at Charlotte-town; and the inhabitants of the island are computed at five thousand.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

THIS island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1496, who also founded the prior claim of England to the North American shores as far south as Florida. This discovery, like that of Columbus and others, was unintentional, the design being merely to penetrate to the East Indies. The island of Newfoundland is about 320 miles in length and breadth, the shape approaching to a triangle. It seems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, small pine, and fir, yet on the south-west side there are lofty head-lands. The country has scarcely been penetrated above thirty miles; but there are numerous ponds and morasses, with some dry barrens. The great fishery on the banks of Newfoundland begins about the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September. The cod is either dried for the Mediterranean, or barrelled up in a pickle of salt, for the English market. These banks and the island are environed with constant fog, or snow and sleet; the former supposed by some to be occasioned by the superior warmth of the gulf stream from the West Indies. The fishery is computed to yield about 300,000*l.* a year, from the cod sold in the Catholic countries. The island of Newfoundland, after many disputes with the French, was ceded to England 1731, the French having permission to dry their nets on the northern shores; and in 1763 it was stipulated that they might fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence; and the small isles of St. Pierre and Miquelon were ceded to them. The French, by the treaty 1783, were to enjoy

their fisheries on the northern and western coasts, the inhabitants of the United States having the same privileges as before their independence ; and the preliminaries of October 1801, confirm the privileges granted to the French.

The chief towns are St. John in the S. E. with Placentia in the south, and Bonavista in the east ; but not above a thousand families remain during the winter. In the spring a small squadron is sent to protect the fisheries and settlements, the admiral being also governor of the island, its sole consequence depending on the fishery ; and there are two lieutenant governors, one at St. John's, another at Placentia.

These dreary shores are strongly contrasted by the Bermudas or Sommer Islands, lying almost at an equal distance between Nova Scotia and the West Indies ; but as they are nearer to the coast of Carolina than to any other land, it seems more proper to arrange them here than under any other division.

THE BERMUDAS, OR SOMMER ISLANDS.

THEY are four in number, and were discovered by the Spaniards under John Bermudas, in 1527 ; but being afterwards neglected by them, they were again disclosed by the shipwreck of Sir George Sommer in 1609 : which event seems to have induced Shakespear to describe them as ever *vexed* with storms. They are situated in 32° N. lat. and 65° W. long. from London, about 300 leagues from Carolina. Another poet, Waller, who resided there some time, on his being condemned for a plot against the parliament in 1643, describes them in very different colours, as enjoying a perpetual spring. In 1725 the benevolent and eccentric bishop Berkley proposed to erect a college in these islands for the conversion of the savage Americans ! Of these little islands the chief is that called St. George, with a capital town of the same name, containing about five hundred houses, built of a soft free-stone, the inhabitants being about three thousand, and those of all the isles perhaps about ten thousand. There is a governor, council, and general assembly ; the religion being that of the

church of England. The people are chiefly occupied in building light ships of their cedars, in which they trade to North America and the West Indies. It would appear that these remote isles were uninhabited when settled by the English.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

THE name and origin of the United States of America are too recent to need any elucidation. It is universally known that they were British colonies, planted by the British government at several periods, and protected by it till the year 1774 ; when they confederated to resist the taxation of Parliament, and, failing to obtain an immunity by petition, remonstrance, and a suspension of trade, declared themselves sovereign and independent states on the 4th of July, 1776.

Such a revolution was to be expected in the natural course of events. After the expulsion of the French from Canada, the colonies had progressed rapidly in commerce, wealth and population, and had illy brooked the legislative restrictions of a distant metropolis, long before they combined to oppose them. The interest of the American merchant and the commercial regulations of the English parliament, had been at variance from a very early period. But whether the crisis was hastened by the intrigues of ambitious men on both sides of the Atlantic, or by the discovery of a regular system in the parent to abridge the just liberties of her children, is a question that has been agitated with great warmth on both sides, and is best left to the impartial decision of posterity. Nothing, however, can be more certain than that, next to internal harmony, it is of the first importance to both countries to cultivate peace and amity by mutual justice and good faith, and to guard strictly against the machinations of their common enemy, who will always endeavour to destroy that good understanding which opposes a perpetual bar to his ambitious projects.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. When the war of independence was closed by a definitive treaty of peace, between the King of Great Britain and the United States of America, on the 3d of September 1783, the boundaries of

these States were declared to extend from the river St. Croix in the bay of Fundi, and an ideal line from its source, to the high lands which divide the waters running into the river St. Lawrence from those that fall into the Atlantic ocean : along those highlands to the northwesternmost head of Connecticut river, and down the middle of that river to the 45th degree of north latitude : thence by a due west line to the river Cataraqui ; along said river till it unites with lake Ontario, and by an ideal line running through the middle of that lake, of lakes Erie and Superior to the lake of the Woods, called by the French *lac du bois* : thence by a west line from the northwesternmost corner of this lake to the head waters of the Mississippi,* and down the middle of the Mississippi, to the 31st degree of north latitude, where it meets the northern boundary of West Florida ; thence by a line nearly due east to the head of St. Mary's river, and down the middle of said river to the Atlantic ocean ; including all the islands that lie within twenty leagues of the shores of the United States.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of this extensive and flourishing country, consisted of numerous rude and warlike Indian tribes, whose denominations and memory are almost extinct. An acquaintance with Europeans has ever been baneful to uncivilized communities in all parts of the globe. It is supposed that there are hardly 40,000 of this devoted race remaining, within the extensive territories of the United States. The Indians soon discovered a fondness for spirituous liquors, with which unprincipled traders were too ready to supply them ; by the excessive use of these, their natural ferocity was increased, their passions inflamed, their best principles perverted, and by this mean, together with the introduction of diseases before unknown, their lives were

* In this demarkation there appears some error, for late discoveries have proved that a western line from the lake of the Woods would strike no part of the river Mississippi ; of course this portion of the western limits remains undefined.

The N. W. corner of the lake of the Woods is in lat. $49^{\circ} 37'$ N. long. $94^{\circ} 31'$ W.

Northernmost branch of Mississippi, at its source is in $47^{\circ} 38'$ N. long. $95^{\circ} 6'$ W.

Northern bend of the Missouri is in $47^{\circ} 32'$ N. long. $101^{\circ} 25'$ W. from this it bends to the south of west.

shortened, and their numbers rapidly reduced. The few who escaped from these merciless destroyers, retired principally beyond the western lakes.—The European colonies established in this country, were planted at different periods, mostly by emigrants from the British islands, as will be more fully explained under the heads of the several states where they first settled.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. Among the chief historical events of the United States must be classed their respective origins, which we shall explain hereafter; together with the leading occurrences in that contest which terminated in the independence of the United States.

1. The Stamp act passed in 1765, is considered as the first attempt to raise a supply of British revenue from North America; it being left to the colonies, at the same time, and they were requested to raise 100,000*l.* sterling, in any other mode more agreeable to themselves; but opposition being given to this, and every other mode but free-will gifts to the crown, the act was repealed in the year following.

2. In 1768. Custom house boat patrolled through the streets of Boston, and burnt in triumph: the revenue officers being obliged to fly for safety on board the Romney man of war.

3. Similar attempts to raise a revenue, in a more indirect manner, were alike unsuccessful, and in 1770, all the duties except three pence a pound on tea were taken off by act of Parliament.

4. The King's troops attacked while doing duty on guard, by an armed mob, on March 5, 1770: the troops fired and killed five of the assailants, for which they were tried and acquitted.

5. 1773. The armed schooner *Gaspie*, stationed off Rhode Island, was burnt by the Americans. In this year Governor Hutchinson's private letters to his friends in England, came into possession of Dr. Franklin, by some mysterious means, and were sent by him to the general Court at Boston; where they were published, and had a great effect in inflaming the public mind.

6. The tea sent by the East India Company to the port of Boston was thrown into the bay. This led to what is called the Boston Port Bill, March 1774 and the act for altering the government of Massachusetts Bay: to last till

the town of Boston agreed to make a just restitution for the tea destroyed.

7. Deputies met at Philadelphia, 26th October, 1774, constituting the first congress : when they published a dutiful address to the king, and another address to the people of Canada, inviting them to revolt.

8. Other acts of the British parliament, 1775, inflamed the discontents, and the civil war commenced with a skirmish between the British troops and American militia at Lexington. The battle of Bunker's Hill, or rather Breed's Hill, was fought on the 17th June, 1775.

9. On the 4th of July, 1776, the American congress published their solemn declaration of independence ; and this manifesto has been republished annually ever since, contrary to the custom of all civilized nations, as well as the general good sense of the American citizens.

10. On the 30th January, 1778, the king of France concluded a treaty with the United States, which expired with him on the scaffold, the 21st January, 1793.

11. The treaty of peace, 30th November, 1782, by which the independence of the United States was solemnly acknowledged, after a struggle of seven years.

12. The first constitution of the United States having been found imperfect, a new plan was submitted to the several states, and received their approbation. On the 30th of April 1789, George Washington was inaugurated first president of the United States. The resignation and death of that illustrious man—the short contest with the venal directory of France—the removal of the seat of government to Washington in the district of Columbia—and the purchase of Louisiana, are incidents which are fresh in the memory of every reader.

RELIGION. The constitution of the United States is entirely silent on the subject of religion. Every man is admissible to office, provided he is well qualified in all other respects : yet the obligations of the Christian religion seem to be acknowledged, though indirectly, by the oath the President is required to take on the holy evangelists, at the time of his inauguration, as well as by the annual appointment of a chaplain to read prayers before each house of congress. In the constitutions of the individual states there is not the same latitude, as we shall notice when we come to treat of them separately.—It may be safe to assert that of all the various denominations in the United

States, the Congregationalists and Presbyterians are much the most numerous.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The government of the United States is a representative republic, retaining as much of the form and spirit of the English constitution, as is consistent with the avowed rights of the people. Those two essential securities to individuals in their persons, and their property, the habeas corpus act, and trial by jury are preserved. Effectual measures are taken to remove what was formerly a fruitful source of animosity and dissension among the colonies, the undefined limits of their respective territories, as every state has renounced the right of deciding upon its own claims, and has agreed to submit them to the final decision of congress.

By the constitution of 1789, the government is vested in a president and two legislative branches. The president is chosen for the term of four years, and is re-eligible. His salary is 25,000 dollars per annum, which cannot be varied during the term of his presidency. He must be a native citizen, or adopted at the date of the constitution, thirty-five years of age, and have resided in the United States fourteen years preceding his election. The senate, or superior branch, consists of two senators from each state, chosen every six years, with a biennial rotation of one third—The house of representatives, or second branch, is elected every second year, and is not to contain more than 200 members, each representing, according to the progress of population from 33,000 to 50,000 inhabitants—Once in four years, a vice-president is also chosen, who is always president of the senate, but has no vote, except when there is an equality; and he executes the office of first executive magistrate, in case of a vacancy by death or otherwise. The present congress consists of 36 senators, and 144 representatives.

No specific portion of property, whether real or personal, no religious test whatever is required in the qualification of a representative, a senator, the vice-president, or even the president, by any article of the constitution, or any law of the United States.

The president is ex officio, commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, as well as of all the militia when called into actual service. He has power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment. With the advice

and consent of the senate he has power to make treaties, but the concurrence of two thirds of the senate present is necessary to render such act valid. He nominates, and with the concurrence of the senate, he appoints ambassadors, consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers not otherwise appointed by the constitution. He may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them. He receives ambassadors and other public ministers, and is directed to take care to have the laws faithfully executed. His negative on laws is only suspensive : two thirds of both houses concurring have full authority to enact laws without his consent.

The congress (consisting of senate and representatives who are obliged to meet once a year) has the power to impose and collect taxes, imposts and excises ; to pay the debts, and to defray the contingent expences of government ; to borrow money on the credit of the United States ; to regulate commerce ; to coin money ; to regulate the value thereof and of foreign coin ; to fix the standard of weights and measures ; to constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court ; to declare war ; grant letters of mark and reprisals ; to raise and support armies ; to provide and maintain a navy ; but money must be applied to the specific purpose for which it is appropriated by law, and no appropriation for military purposes shall be for longer term than two years

Each particular state is debarred from entering into any treaty, or alliance with any foreign nation ; coining money, or laying duties on imports or exports, but what may be absolutely necessary, and the nett produce of such duties shall be for the use of the general treasury, and subject to the revision and control of congress.—All the judiciary officers of the United States are appointed by the president ; they hold their commissions during good behaviour ; and their salaries are unalterable while they continue in office.

The judiciary powers extend to all cases in law and equity, arising from the constitution and the laws of the United States ; to treatise with foreign nations, to their ambassadors and public ministers ; to cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction ; to disputes between two or more states ; between citizens of different states, or of the same state claiming under different states—and to all cases where the United States are a party. The laws generally correspond

with those of England, and English reports are quoted as good authority in almost all cases. The stated courts consist of a supreme court which is held twice a year at the seat of government ; a district court held four times a year in each state ; and circuit courts, divided into eastern, middle, and southern, where one of the associate judges of the supreme court always presides.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION, ARMY, NAVY, AND MILITIA. The United States are generally classed under three grand divisions, viz. New England, or the Northern States, comprising Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, (including the District of Maine,) Rhode Island, and Connecticut ; the Middle States, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Ohio ; and the Southern States, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee. Besides which, there is an extensive Northwestern Territory, denominated Indiana ; a Southern Territory on the Mississippi ; and the newly acquired Province of Louisiana which is in itself an empire : of each of these we shall give as full an account as our narrow limits will permit.

The population of these extensive territories estimated by order of Congress in 1790, was found to be 3,939,326, exclusive of the inhabitants N. W. of the Ohio, supposed to be 20,000. It is inferred that the number is doubled every 28 1-3 years. By the census of 1800, it had increased to 5,305,666, of whom one fifth were blacks or mulattoes, and about 900,000 slaves. The population is about 5 1-3 persons to a mile square, and about 7 1-6 acres of improved land to a person. About four fifths of the inhabitants may be termed agriculturists. The families may be estimated about 665,000. The males out number females by 34,146. Those of 16 years and upwards exceed the younger moiety by 40,000 ; and those of 45 years and upwards are to the whole population as 12 to a hundred.

A small military force is maintained, consisting of two regiments of artillery, four of infantry, one of marines, and two companies of dismounted cavalry, for the defence of the frontiers. But a standing army is deemed incompatible with the republican government ; and the strength of the states is computed from the militia, which may be stated at 800,000 ; which is a number sufficiently formidable

to subdue the whole continent, and to set foreign invasion at defiance.

NAVY. The navy of the United States is still of little consequence, though a few ships were equipped during the recent short dispute with France. In the course of a century or two, it is probable that the maritime spirit of their progenitors will be displayed, and that the American fleet will rival any in Europe. At present it consists of six or eight frigates, and three or four sloops.

REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES. The revenue of the United States is derived principally from duties on imported merchandise and tonage, which at a medium are near 20 per cent. ad valorem, and amount to between twelve and thirteen millions of dollars per annum. The annual expenditure, inclusive of interest on the national debt, is between eleven and twelve millions. The debts domestic and foreign may be stated at 88,000,000 dollars, and the sinking fund about 9 millions. The aggregate value of goods consumed in the United States (the average of 6 years from 1793—8) about fifty millions of dollars, all of which paid duties. The number of pleasure carriages which paid duties in 1801, were 23,340, yielding a revenue of 77,371 dollars, but this duty has ceased, and been supplied by an extra impost on goods imported.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE. The political importance of the United States, though not under-rated by themselves, seems not to have risen to its due value with foreign nations. Whether this error be owing to a general ignorance of the real strength and importance of these states, or a persuasion that nothing can drive them from the lucrative pursuits of the carrying trade, is uncertain. But, on either supposition, it is natural, though extremely unjust, for all the belligerent powers to plunder us, in their turns, of a part of those riches that flow from their calamities. They cannot view with indifference a nation of traders that discover no sympathy in the convulsions of a whole continent, no anxiety about the sufferings of other nations, as long as those calamities open new channels of commerce, and swell the revenues of the state. But if we should ever rise in our politics above this Dutch level, and assume that rank among the nations which Providence has qualified us to fill, we may become in some measure the umpire of European disputes; and

often prevent the sword being drawn by European nations, those especially who have colonies on or near the American shores. When considered in this light, the political importance of the United States has a dignity and pre-eminence superior to any other nation since the days of the Roman republic.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and domestic economy of the United States, differ only in a few trifling shades from those of Great Britain : for although the population is composed by adventurers from every nation in Europe, the original settlers being principally English, to their customs and manners, as well as laws and language, successive emigrants have conformed in a great degree. In diet and dress one is a copy of the other, nor do they differ much in their amusements. Travellers have observed a want of urbanity, particularly in Philadelphia ; and in all the capital cities, an eager pursuit of wealth, by adventurous speculations in commerce, by land-jobbing, banks, insurance offices, and lotteries. In general the common people, and particularly the liberated Blacks, shew their love of liberty by a surliness of behaviour, and a contempt for those civilities, and that subordination, which are necessary in all well ordered communities. The ever-varying fashions of dress are universally borrowed from England, and are adopted sooner by the peasantry than perhaps in any other country. The multiplication of inns, taverns, and dram shops, is an obvious national evil that calls loudly for legislative interference ; for in no country are they more numerous, or more universally baneful. Although education is not neglected, for schools are spread every where through the well settled parts of the country, the domestic regulation of the manners of children and youth is on a very bad footing.

LANGUAGE. On the termination of the war with England, a few rancorous revolutionists proposed the adoption of a new language : the English however prevails and is cultivated with great assiduity in all the principal cities and towns, and must in the course of a century or two be spread over a greater portion of the globe than any other that ever existed. All the classical authors in the English language have been reprinted in America, many of them have passed through several editions, some with great elegance and correctness. Many writers of conspicuous

merit have arisen in the United States. Literary societies, publish their transactions, while magazines, and news-papers without number, contribute to the diffusion of useful science. If our liberties perish, it will not be by "want of knowledge," as the term is commonly understood.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. Education seems to attract the attention of states as well as individuals. In short, grammar schools, academies, colleges and universities, are founded in every district of the union; those of New England, New York, and Philadelphia, are the most distinguished; but of these seminaries, we shall take more particular notice, under the heads of the several states where they are instituted.

CITIES AND TOWNS. As a short description of the principal cities and towns, will fall more properly under the geography of the several states to which they belong, we shall confine ourselves in this place to a brief sketch of the plan and situation of WASHINGTON, the present seat of the Federal government. This intended capital of the American empire, is situated at the confluence of the river Potomac, and what is called the Eastern branch, in lat. $38^{\circ} 53'$ north. In point of salubrity the situation is unexceptionable; the soil is dry, and furnished with several springs of excellent water. The grand avenues, agreeably to the plan, are from 120 to 160 feet wide, and the other streets from 90 to 110: in all a sufficient space is allotted for foot passengers, on both sides of the streets. The capitol designed for the reception of Congress, and the President's House, are on considerable eminences, about one mile apart, but neither of them is completed. In short, almost all remains to be done: and as the city has very little in itself, or its vicinity, to invite the industrious mechanic, or the man of commercial enterprise; as the navigation to it is long and tedious; and it has to contend with many rivals more happily situated; its advances in population must be very slow. Already have proposals been made, on the floor of Congress, to adjourn their sessions to some more convenient place.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. As the principal commercial states of Europe have been engaged, near one half the time, since the peace of 1783, in a destructive war, it has rendered American produce and shipping necessary to all of them, by which the trade of this country has

swelled much beyond its natural bounds. And, while the exports of domestic produce has not increased, *communibus annis*, in the ratio of our population, the grand total of our foreign commerce far exceeds that proportion; though more than one half of it consist of foreign merchandise imported and reshipped. This, however, would have left a handsome profit, to use a mercantile phrase, had we dealt only with honest people who pay their debts, and escaped spoliations at sea.—In the year 1798, our imports were estimated at 60,000,000 of dollars, which perhaps is a medial rate, and our exports at 61,000,000 (five eighths of both being to and from British ports) In 1799 and 1800, our exports to Great Britain amounted to 69,442,321 dollars, to France 16,425,584 dollars. In 1800, imports from Great Britain were 31,107,834, from France only 87,107 dollars. What a disparity in the relative importance of the two countries! Indeed, if the American merchant could obtain only 87,107 dollars, in returns for 16,425,584, it were better to close the account entirely till a change of times. But we have been so much in the habit of pouring millions into the laps of these Frenchmen, that we begin to think lightly of it, and they to think still less. The tonnage of American shipping is estimated at 868,000 tons, and the seamen at 63,000. The American manufactures will come more regularly under the heads of the respective states.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. A country extending through 15 degrees of latitude, and more than one thousand miles along the sea coast; with various degrees of elevation from the sea, as well as distances from the frozen regions of the north; must vary greatly in the temperature of its air. But there is one trait in the character of our climates, for which all are more or less remarkable; I mean a sudden transition from heat to cold, and the contrary, which produces, or aggravates many of the American diseases. The wind from the northwest is always cold, sometimes in the extreme; so as to sink the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer 27° below 0. In the plains, on the east of the Apalachian mountains, the summer heats are often immoderate. At Savanna in Georgia, the mercury has been known to rise in the shade as high as 102° , and to remain for many days at 98° . Near the mountains on the eastern side, and more on the western, the climate is more

temperate, even in the southern States. In the Atlantic States, a N. E. wind is commonly attended with rain, while on the west of the mountains a S. W. has that effect. In the northern States, the winters are long and tedious, with a clear and salutary air ; in the middle States, not so long, but more diversified with alternate frosts and rains ; in the southern, short and mild, snow seldom remaining more than a day or two. But in all, the winters vary considerably : out of four, one may justly be termed severe, when most of the great rivers in the middle and northern districts, are crossed on the ice. It may be asserted that the winters in general are much colder in the United territories than they are in correspondent latitudes of Europe.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. If a person could take a birds-eye view of the whole area of the United States, he would be apt to describe it as an immeasurable forest, diversified with a few spots of cleared land, hardly discernable in the general perspective. In the middle ground he would behold a vast range of mountains, spreading its ramifications variously, but inclining principally to a parallel with the sea coast, and giving rise to numerous large rivers that wind through the wilderness, towards the Atlantic, on one side, and on the other, towards the Mississippi and western lakes. But on the sea coast he would discern some larger openings, the seats of populous towns, and cultivated farms ; and in the western regions, extensive inland seas, and boundless savannas or prairies, the primeval haunts of deers and buffaloes. This American territory embraces a great variety of soils, which may be divided into three distinct heads or classifications. The first extending from fifty to one hundred miles from the coast, and from the head of Chesapeake to the confines of Florida, is generally light and sandy, with an exception of the banks and estuaries of the rivers, and is covered with pines, cedars, and other resinous trees. The second embraces the greater part of Pennsylvania, the higher districts of Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, as well as the greater part of the Western States and territory, and is covered with strong timber, such as oak, ash, maple, hickory, locust, walnut, the horse chesnut and sumac, indicative of a soil rich and productive. The third portion, of which there is but an inconsiderable strip within our limits, is of a sterile quality, and comprises a small part of New York and the New England

States, advancing into Canada, and is distinguished by its evergreens of pine, fir, cedar, cypress, &c.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil, though of various descriptions, is generally fertile enough to repay the farmer for his labour; in some places it is extremely rich and productive, being a deep black mould; in others, a brown loamy earth, mixed with clay; and towards the sea shore, sandy and fittest for rye and Indian corn. There are marshes of considerable extent along the several rivers, which the hand of industry is every year reclaiming from the waters, and converting into rich meadows. But the land in the middle states is much broken by ranges of mountains.—The farmer is improving every year in the science of agriculture, and by the cultivation of clover, and a proper rotation of crops, recovering his worn out fields from their unproductive state.—Among the numerous products are wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, beans, pease, potatoes, and Indian corn.—In Carolina and Georgia rice, cotton, indigo, and tobacco, are cultivated with great success. Turnips are raised only for culinary purposes; the American farmer is not yet acquainted with the use of this vegetable in feeding cattle.—Orchards are numerous, and cyder a favourite liquor, but from some cause, whether ignorance or negligence, or a change in the climate, apple and peach orchards are less productive than they formerly were. The latter are perishing annually by the devastations of a grub which attacks the roots.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The botany of the United States, including the Floridas, or in other words, of the whole region extending eastward from the Mississippi to the ocean, and southward from the river St. Lawrence with its lakes to the gulf of Mexico, may be divided into those vegetables which are common to the whole country, and those that occupy only particular parts.

The most generally diffused species among the timber trees are, the willow-leaved oak growing in the swamps; the chesnut oak, which in the southern states attains an enormous size, and is almost as valuable for its sweet farinaceous acorns as for its wood; the white oak; the red and the black. Next to these in rank are the walnut, and the hickory. The tulip tree and sassafras laurel, more impatient of cold than the preceding, appear as shrubs on the Canadian borders, rise into trees in the midland states,

and on the warm banks of the Altamaha attain the full perfection of stateliness and beauty. The sugar maple, on the contrary, is seen only on the northern sides of the hills in the southern states, and increases both in size and frequency in the more bracing climate of Pennsylvania. New York, and Vermont. The sweet gum tree, the iron wood, the American elm, the poplar, and the taccamahacca, appear in every state in the Union where the soil is suitable, without being much affected by variety of climate. The light sandy tracts, both wet and dry, are principally inhabited by the important and useful family of pines; of these the chief species are the Pennsylvanian fir, the common and the hemlock spruce fir; the yellow, the white, and the Weymouth pine; and the larch: nearly allied to which are the arbor vitæ, and the red cedar of America. The smaller trees and shrubs that are dispersed in all parts of the United States, among a multitude of others, consist of the following: the fringe tree, the red-maple, the sumach and poison oak, the red mulberry, the persimmon plum, and the triple-thorned acacia.

The mountainous ridges are not sufficiently high to be rich in alpine plants; their climate however is sensibly cooler than that of the plains, on which account those of the south are inhabited by the vegetables of Pennsylvania and the northern states, while the highlands of these abound in the plants of Canada.

But the glories of the American flora are principally confined to the back parts of Virginia, the southern and the western states; it is here that the unfading verdure of the wide savannas, the solemn magnificence of the primeval forests, and the wild exuberance of the steaming swamps, offer to the astonished admiration of the botanist every thing that by colour, by fragrance, and by form, can delight the senses and fix the attention.

The low ridges of calcareous soil running parallel with the rivers, and rising from the level savannas into extensive lawns and swelling hills, are generally covered with open or entangled woods, except where they have been converted into tillage by the industry of the inhabitants. In these rich tracts grows the lofty palmetto, the evergreen oak, the sweet bay, the benzoe laurel, the common laurel, the wide shading broom pine, and the red cedar. The straight silvery columns of the papaw fig, rising to the

height of twenty feet, and crowned by a canopy of broad sinuated leaves, form a striking feature in this delicious scenery, while the golden fruit and fragrant blossoms of the orange, here realize the ancient traditions of the groves of the Hesperides. Superior however to all these is the towering magnificence of the great magnolia : in this rich marley soil it rises above a hundred feet, with a perfectly erect trunk, supporting a shady conical head of dark green foliage : from the centre of the coronets of leaves that terminate the branches expands a large rose-shaped blossom of pure white, which is succeeded by a crimson cone containing the seeds of a beautiful coral red colour ; and these falling from their cells remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel by a silky thread, six inches or more in length ; so that whether in this state or in blossom it is second to none for grandeur and beauty.

The level plains by the sides of rivers, and therefore generally in a flooded state during the whole rainy season, are called savannas. The trees that grow upon them are of the aquatic kind, particularly the beaver tree, and American olive ; these are generally either single or grouped together into small open groves, while the larger part of the meadow is overgrown with long succulent herbage, intermixed with shrubs and plants.

The swamps are at all times, even in the height of summer, for the most part under water, and are distinguished from the rest of the country by the crowded stems of the cane, the light foliage of the tupelo tree, the taccamahacca, and the white cedar : this last is perhaps the most picturesque tree in all America ; four or five enormous buttresses or rude pillars rise from the ground, and unite a kind of arch at the height of about seven feet, and from this centre there springs a straight column eighty or ninety feet high, without a branch : it then spreads into a flat umbrella-shaped top, covered with finely divided leaves of the most delicate green. This platform is the secure abode of the eagle and the crane ; and the oily seeds contained in its cones are the favourite repast of the paroquets that are constantly fluttering around.

The domestic zoology of the United States nearly corresponds with that of the parent country, with some few shades of difference in size and colour. Among the larger wild animals may be mentioned the bison, large herds of

which used to be seen near the Mississippi, and they were once very numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania. The musk bull and cow only appear in the more western regions, beyond the Mississippi. Among the animals now lost is classed the mammoth, whose enormous bones are particularly found near the salt springs upon the Ohio. The moose deer are become extremely rare, and will probably in no long time be utterly extirpated, as the wolf and boar have been in Britain. The American stag rather exceeds the European in size, and is seen in great numbers feeding in the rich savannas of the Missouri and Mississippi, where there are also herds of that kind called the Virginian deer.

Bears, wolves, and foxes are found in most of the States, together with a few rapacious animals of the cat kind, improperly called panthers and tigers.

The beaver is well known from the fur, and the singular formation of his cabin, built in ponds for the sake of security. This industrious animal is now rare in any of the ancient States, and is somewhat imitated by the musk rat, who likewise builds his hut in shallow-streams. Some kinds of monkeys are said to be found in the southern states. The morse or sea cow, and the seal, used to frequent the northern shores ; and the manati, common in South America, is said sometimes to appear on the southern coasts.

Among the birds there are many kinds of eagles, vultures, owls ; and numerous sorts called by European names, though generally of distinct species. The turkey is peculiar to America, and abounds in the north. They were brought from Mexico to Spain, and from Spain to England about 1524 ; the African poultry, or *meleagrides* of more ancient authors, being Guinea fowls. Virginia abounds with beautiful birds, and it may be conceived that vast varieties of aquatic birds crowd the numerous lakes and rivers, the largest being the wild swan, which sometimes weighs thirty-six pounds. Some of the frogs are of remarkable size ; and the tortoise or turtle, supplies a delicious food, while the alligator is frequent in the southern rivers. Of serpents the various kinds found in the united territories, Virginia, in particular, are very numerous. The rattlesnake is the largest, being from four to six feet in length, and is one of the most dreaded. Among the fish are most of those which are esteemed in Europe ; and of

those that are peculiar may be mentioned a large kind of white trout found in the lakes, of rock, perch, and cat fish in the western rivers.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of the United States will not supply an extensive theme, as few substances are found except those which are indeed the most precious to industry, iron and coal. Iron ore is found in great abundance in Massachusetts, where there are considerable manufactures. Copper ore also appears in that province. In Rhode Island there are mines of iron and copper. On the banks of the Connecticut is a lead mine, but too expensive to work; and zinc is also found, with talc, and crystals of various colours. At Philipsburg in New York is a silver mine; and lead, zinc, and manganese, with copper and coal. Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Maryland abound in iron ore: they possess also coal, and copper mines. Virginia is celebrated for various minerals. There are lead mines which yield from fifty to eighty pounds from one hundred of ore: copper and black lead are also found: and there is abundance of excellent coal on both sides of James River, said to have been discovered by a boy in pursuit of cray fish. Coal also abounds towards the Mississippi and Ohio; and at Pittsburgh is of superior quality: but this valuable mineral is chiefly worked in Virginia, where the beds seem very extensive. Limestone is common in most of the States, and in some of them there are rich veins of marble of various descriptions. Amethysts, or violet-coloured crystals, are also found in Virginia. North Carolina is crossed by a long ridge of limestone, in a south-westerly direction, but no minerals seem to have been discovered. In the territory south of the Ohio, what is called stone coal is found in the Cumberland mountains, or great Laurel ridge, and there are salt springs through most of the western country. In South Carolina there are said to be appearances of silver and lead, with abundance of iron ore, and quarries of free-stone. Georgia, the most southern state, is of a rich soil; but besides a bank of oyster shells, ninety miles from the sea, there seems no mineralogic discovery.

MINERAL WATERS. There are several mineral waters of various virtues, in different provinces of the United States. In the province of Vermont, or the Green Mountain, there is a remarkable sulphureous spring,

which dries up in two or three years, and bursts out in another place. Those of Saratoga, in the province of New York, are remarkably copious, and surrounded with singular petrifications. In Pennsylvania there are some that have been frequented for more than half a century. Two warm springs occur in Virginia, one of them 112° . These are called the springs of Augusta ; others more frequented are near the river Potomac. The salt springs in Kentucky also deserve mention ; and there are others in the State of Tennessee.

BAYS, RIVERS, AND LAKES. The most remarkable bays are Casco, Barnstable, Piscataqua, and Boston bays in the north east ; Delaware bay in the middle division ; Chesapeake bay, Albermarle and Pamlico sounds in the south : the latter two are hardly to be termed bays as they are shallow, and their navigation obstructed by numerous sand bars. A short account of the principal rivers of the United States will appear more properly under the heads of the respective States.

Besides the great lakes which form the northern boundary, and which have been already mentioned in the general description of North America, there are some considerable lakes in the northern parts of the United territory. Those on the west have been little explored. The small lakes called Cedar, Little Winnipeg, and Leech, supply the sources of the Mississippi. On the east the most important lake is that of Champlain, rather resembling a wide river, which flows into that of St. Lawrence, and supplies an easy communication with Canada. The Champlain is the boundary between the states of New York and Vermont, being in length about 75 g. miles, while the breadth seldom exceeds four or five ; and it terminates in the broad river called Chambly or Richlieu, which falls within the limits of Canada. Lake George, at the southern extremity of Champlain, approaches within a few miles of the Hudson river, so that a canal might be opened at no great expense. Besides many small lakes S. W. of the Champlain, there are several other lakes in the same direction, and also in the province of New York, as the Oneida, the Cayuga, and Seneca.

MOUNTAINS. The chief mountains have been likewise noticed in the general view of North America. The White and Green mountains in the northern provin-

ces, and the Land's Height, which bounds the District of Maine, may be regarded as elongations of the Apalachian chain, but these and some others of local denominations, we shall describe more explicitly elsewhere.

FORESTS. Aboriginal forests are so numerous throughout the United territory, that none seem to be particularly distinguished. There does not appear to exist, on the whole continent of America, any of those sandy deserts which are so remarkable in Asia and Africa. There is, on the contrary, an exuberance of water even in the most torrid regions ; which might be added as a proof of the theory that this continent has more recently emerged. Even the volcanoes in South America often pour down torrents of water and mud, and no where occur the sandy ruins of plains, after the fertile soil has been totally lost, or the rocky skeletons of ancient mountains. The large tract in the eastern part of Virginia and North Carolina, called the Dismal Swamp, occupies about 150,000 acres ; but it is entirely covered with trees, juniper and cypress on the more moist parts, and on the drier white and red oaks, and a variety of pines. These trees attain a prodigious size ; and among them there is often thick brushwood, so as to render the swamp impervious, while other forests in North America are commonly free from underwood. Cane reeds, and tall rich grass, soon fatten cattle of the vicinity, which are taught to return to the farms of their own accord. In this swampy forest bears, wolves, deer, and other wild animals abound. Some parts are so dry as to bear a horse, while some are overflowed, and others so miry that a man would sink up to the neck. A canal has been led through it ; and even in the dry parts water of the colour of brandy gushed in at the depth of three feet. In the northern part the timber supplies an article of trade, while in the southern rice is found to prosper ; and in the neighbourhood none of these diseases are known which haunt other marshy situations.

SWAMPS. Georgia presents a singular marsh, or in the wet season a lake, called Ekansanoko, by others Ouaquafenoga, in the S. E. extremity of the province. This marshy lake is about 300 miles in circumference, and contains several large and fertile isles, one of which is represented by the Creek Indians as a kind of paradise, inhabited by a peculiar race, whose women are incomparably

beautiful, and are called by them daughters of the sun. These islanders are said to be a remnant of an ancient tribe, nearly exterminated by the Creeks.

ISLANDS. The principal islands belonging to the American Confederacy, are Nantucket, attached to the State of Massachusetts, situated about eight leagues south of Cape Cod, remarkable for its expert and enterprising seamen, and containing about six thousand inhabitants; and Long Island which is separated from the States of Connecticut and New York, by the sound and East river, being about 140 miles in length, with about 10 miles of medial breadth. It is highly cultivated, supplying New York market with a great part of its vegetables, and contains upwards of 30,000 inhabitants. What is called Rhode Island is chiefly continental; all the other islands subject to the Federal Government are either a few strips of land lying along the coast of the Carolinas and Georgia, or dispersed through the various bays and lakes, and are of little comparative value.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

EXTENT AND SITUATION. NEW HAMPSHIRE is situated between $42^{\circ} 41'$ and $45^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, and $2^{\circ} 41'$ and $4^{\circ} 29'$ E. long. from Philadelphia, or $70^{\circ} 40'$ and $72^{\circ} 28'$ W. from London; being bounded on the east by the Atlantic ocean and the District of Maine, on the North by Lower Canada, on the west by Connecticut river, which divides it from Vermont, and on the south by the State of Massachusetts.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The earliest authentic notice we have of the aboriginal proprietors of this territory, is exhibited in the sale they made of land to a certain English company in the year 1629. At this time the Sagamores of Penecook, Pentucket, Squamshat and Nuchawa-

nack, by a deed under their hands and seals, conveyed to the reverend John Wheelwright and his followers, all that tract of land that lies between the rivers Piscataqua and Merrimack, from their falls to the ocean ; on condition, that every township should pay annually, for ever, to the chief Sagamore and his heirs, a good "coat of trucking cloth," and to the "said John Wheelwright, his heirs, and successors" two bushels of Indian corn ; reserving to themselves the privilege of fishing, hunting, and planting, in any part of the same. But these sachems were proprietors of part only of the country now styled New Hampshire ; for in Hubbard's history of the Indian wars, that occurred some years afterwards, we have the names of several other tribes who desolated the English settlements, as the Taranteens, the Sacos, the Indians of Amascoggin, Penobscot, Piscataqua, &c.

MEMORABLE EVENTS.

1. The discovery of New Hampshire, by Captain John Smith who ranged the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, and in the course of his voyage ascertained the mouth of the river Piscataqua.

2. Grants made by the Council of Plymouth to Capt. John Mason, and Sir Ferdinando Gorges, in 1621—2, of two large tracts which comprise all the lands from Salem to the Merrimack, and thence to the Sagadahock, and back to the lakes of Canada. It was under the authority of this patent that the first settlement was made in 1623.

3. Wheelwright's purchase from the Indian Sachems in 1629.

4. The Council of Plymouth resign their charter to the King in 1635, reserving the rights of Companies and individuals to all the lands they justly claimed, which claims were mostly confirmed to them by the crown.

5. In 1637, the Rev. John Wheelwright was disfranchised and banished by the government of Massachusetts, for his adherence to Mrs. Hutchinson, a female schismatic ; but being a teacher of considerable credit, he drew with him great part of his congregation, and they founded the town of Exeter, in New Hampshire, having first bought the soil from the natives.

6. In consequence of the divisions and animosities that distracted this infant colony, for it was torn at one time by no less than four discordant governments, the people solicit the interposition of Massachusetts. The application

was well received, and by a formal act dated 1641, they resigned the jurisdiction, and became united with Massachusetts.

7. New Hampshire is separated from Massachusetts, and erected into a distinct government by the crown of Great Britain, in 1679, and Mr. Cutt appointed the first governor.

8. A destructive Indian war, which broke out about the year 1692, checked the progress of population and improvement in New Hampshire; many of the inhabitants being killed, others carried into captivity, and their grain and houses destroyed.

9. A long existing controversy respecting the divisional line between New Hampshire and Massachusetts, terminated by commissioners appointed by the king, in 1737.

10. Although the colony had a separate legislature, they mostly were under the same governor as Massachusetts, till 1740. From this period they were placed under the jurisdiction of a separate governor.

11. Two delegates appointed to meet the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, July 21, 1774.

12. The Federal Constitution ratified, June 21, 1788, by a majority of 57 votes to 46.

13. The present State Constitution framed and confirmed, September 5, 1792, being an amendment of a preceding temporary system.

CIVIL DIVISIONS. New Hampshire is divided into counties and townships; according to the last census, taken in 1800, there were five counties, and upwards of 200 townships, the latter generally six miles square. The townships are all incorporated.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The people of this state are mostly descended from English progenitors. They are a strong, active, industrious race, engaged principally in agriculture or the fisheries. Dr. Belknap laments their too free indulgence in spirituous liquors, but this is an evil too prevalent in all the states, though perhaps more conspicuous in the northern districts, where the rigour of the climate and the occupation of the people may perhaps render it less injurious. They have no slaves and few blacks.

CITIES, TOWNS AND EDIFICES. Portsmouth, situated in the lat. of $43^{\circ} 45'$, N. is the largest town in New Hampshire. It is seated on the Piscataqua river, about

two miles from the ocean, and in 1800 contained 5339 inhabitants. Its public buildings are a state-house, four school houses, a work house, and five places of public religious worship. The harbour is excellent, and the trade great and increasing. Here are two Banks.

EXETER is one of the most ancient towns in this state, founded by the Rev. John Wheelwright and his brother, in 1635. It is seated on the south side of Exeter river, about 15 miles from Portsmouth, and contains about 2000 inhabitants. Its growth was checked by the revolutionary war, before which it carried on ship building on an extensive scale. It has one Bank.

CONCORD. This is an inland town, and the centre of considerable trade and intercourse. It is situated on the Merrimack river, is the seat of the state government, and has about 2500 inhabitants. The state has many other thriving towns and villages, but these are the principal.

ROADS AND INLAND NAVIGATION. In a country like New Hampshire but thinly peopled, there are not many hands to be spared for making artificial roads or canals. Of the latter, there is one cut through the marshes from Hampton to the river Merrimack, sufficient for the passage of loaded boats for about 8 miles; and there is another undertaken round the falls of Merrimack, near Amuskeg, which is nearly completed.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The principal manufacture is ship building, as the state abounds with excellent timber for the purpose. Portsmouth is distinguished for having built the only 74 gun ship that was ever completed in the United States; which was presented during the war of independence to our great ally, Louis XVI. of France.

In the year 1791, the shipping of this state amounted to 19,000 tons: the product of the fisheries was 25,800 quintals, and the amount of the exports, in 1802, was 565,394 dollars. The principal articles sent abroad are lumber of various kinds, masts, yards and spars, horses, cattle, pot and pearl ashes, salted fish and provisions. A considerable part of the produce of this state is shipped from the ports of Massachusetts or Connecticut, and it is sent principally to Great Britain, or the British West India islands.

As the general rage of the United States is a speculation in Banks, and other paper institutions, New Hampshire has not escaped the infection; but the principal Bank of discount and deposit is at Portsmouth, incorporated in 1792, and possessing a capital of 60,000 dollars, which may be increased occasionally to 200,000.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The air of New Hampshire is in general clear and salutary, subject nevertheless to as sudden changes as in the middle and southern states. But as it contains in its bosom and vicinity many lofty mountains, whose heights are covered with snow and ice a great part of the year, the winters are long and intensely cold. The heat of summer is as intemperate, but being of short duration does not unbrace the vigorous frames of the hardy inhabitants. The extremes of heat and cold, are from 20° below, to 100° above 0: the medium about 50° of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The land of this state is broken by numerous hills and mountains; of course there is a great deal unfit for cultivation. The sea coast is light and sandy; but for about 30 miles from the ocean there are many rich vallies which enjoying an annual alluvion from the mountains are very productive, and yield exuberant crops of wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, hemp, hops, &c. The climate is friendly to fruit trees, and orchards of pears and apples are cultivated successfully by every farmer.

BAYS, RIVERS AND LAKES. As this state has but 18 miles of front on the ocean, it cannot present many bays or rivers; indeed the only bay that deserves to be mentioned is that of Piscataqua which spreads from Exeter to Portsmouth; and the only considerable river that runs wholly through the state, is the river of the same name, the principal branch of which, called Nywichwanock, springs from the southernmost of Lovell's Ponds, about 40 miles from the sea. The harbour of Piscataqua is much enlarged by the junction of four auxiliary streams uniting about eight miles above the town of Portsmouth. There are some remarkable ponds or lakes in this state, as Umbagog, near the north-east corner of the state, and Winnisipiokee, near the centre; the latter is about 20 miles long, and from 3 to 8 broad; but there are many other small bodies of standing water of lesser consideration.

MOUNTAINS AND FORESTS. New Hampshire may be justly distinguished as a mountainous country. The white mountains, which extend north-east and south-west, are the highest in the state, and perhaps some part of them the highest ground in the United States, being estimated at 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. These furnish the springs of numerous streams, as well as of some considerable rivers, particularly the Connecticut, Amarisco-gen, and Saco rivers. In a country but thinly peopled, and intersected by mountainous tracts, there must be numerous forests; these, except in a few barren spots, afford a lasting supply of the most valuable timber, such as the pine, walnut, chesnut, hickory, beach and oak, besides a great variety of flowering trees and shrubs.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. To the credit of the New England states it may be justly observed, that they have universally patronized the diffusion of useful knowledge, among even the lowest classes of the people. All the townships of this state are bound by a particular law to support an adequate number of schools. Nor are the superior branches of science neglected. Dartmouth college, founded in the year 1769 under the patronage of the Earl of Dartmouth, is a rich, respectable and growing institution, under the direction of a president, two professors, and as many tutors. It has about 130 students, and possesses, an elegant library, as well as a competent number of useful instruments for making philosophical and mathematical experiments. At Exeter there is a flourishing academy; at Portsmouth a grammar school; and at Concord, Amherst, and Charleston, there are some respectable institutions.

RELIGION. The religion of New Hampshire, is principally that of the Congregational sect; but there are many churches of Presbyterians, some of Baptists, and one of Episcopalians. No parish is obliged to have a minister, but if they contract with one, they are bound by law to comply with their engagements. Any individual has a right to leave his congregation when he chooses, but he is obliged agreeably to his contract to contribute to the maintenance of his former teacher. This measure, however hostile to the rights of conscience, is well calculated to establish the predominant sect, and to render the forms of religion respected.

GOVERNMENT. The constitution of this state has a strong resemblance to that of Massachusetts, being copied from it with a few variations. The executive power is lodged in the hands of a governor who is chosen annually by the people, not by a plurality, but by a majority of all the votes returned. When no candidate has a majority, the general court selects one of the two highest. His compensation is adequate, but depends on the will of the legislature. He must be thirty years of age, a resident in the state seven years preceding his election, and he must possess an estate worth 500*l.* currency, one half of it in a clear freehold. He has a power to convene the executive council whenever the public business may require it: with the advice of his council (which consists of five members elected also by the people annually); he appoints judges, attorney general, sheriffs, coroners, registers of probate, and all the general and field officers of the militia; with their consent he may likewise grant reprieves and pardons, for all offences, except in cases of impeachment. He confirms all laws, and may negative any bill presented to him, which dissent is valid, except when two thirds of both houses concur, after a revisal, to enact the same.—The legislature, which is styled the general court, consists of two branches: a Senate, and House of Representatives, both of which are elected annually by the people; the former has 13, and the latter 120—130 members. A senator must possess a freehold worth 200*l.* and a representative, an estate worth 100*l.* one half freehold.—The representatives originate all money bills; they are the grand inquest of the state, and have the power of impeachment. The senate try all causes of impeachment, and two thirds of the members present have a power to convict. In all other respects, the powers of the two houses are equal; jointly they appoint all the officers of government not otherwise provided for.—The judges of the Supreme Court are appointed by the governor and council, during good behaviour: their salaries cannot be diminished while they are in office.—All male white inhabitants of the age of 21 years, who have paid taxes, have the right of suffrage at elections. Votes at these elections are received by a moderator and the select men in the towns and parishes, and in all other places by the tax assessors.

This state sends two senators and five representatives to Congress. The senators are appointed by a *concurrent* resolution of both houses, and the representatives are elected by the people at large.

POPULATION AND MILITIA. According to the census taken in 1800, this state contained 183,858 inhabitants, among whom there were but eight slaves. The increase is a duplication in about $33\frac{3}{4}$ years. Under the age of 16 years, the males are most numerous, but above that age the females exceed in the ratio of 47 to 45. It appears from a pretty accurate record that one in seven lives to the age of 70, and one in 14 to the age of 80 years. Of the present inhabitants, those of 26 years and upwards are about one-third, and those of 45 and upwards about one-sixth of the whole number. The population is about $19\frac{1}{3}$ persons to a mile square. The militia consists of twenty-seven regiments, forming together about 30,000 effective men.

VERMONT.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARY. THIS state which took its name from the Green Mountains that pervade it from south to north, is bounded by Lower Canada on the north, on the east by Connecticut river which separates it from New Hampshire, on the south by the state of Massachusetts, and on the west by that of New York. It is situated between $42^{\circ} 44'$ and 45° north latitude, and between $1^{\circ} 43'$ and $3^{\circ} 36'$ east long. from Philadelphia, or $71^{\circ} 32'$ and $73^{\circ} 25'$ west from London, and contains about 10,000 square miles, and about 17 persons to a mile square.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. Next to the aboriginal savages (the Iroquois or Five Nations) the first settlement made in this state was under a grant from the colony of Massachusetts, in or about the year 1725: when the government of that colony built fort Dummer upon Connecticut river, while the French were advancing up lake

Champlain, and building forts at every important pass round the British colonies in North America.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1. The grant of a large tract of land in the S. E. of Vermont was made by the general court of Massachusetts, in or about the year 1716, but no settlement was effected till the building of fort Dummer in 1725: as the country, being a frontier, was much exposed to the scalping knives of the French and their savage allies, its improvement was very slow.

2. A divisional line was run in 1741, between the colonies of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, by which it appears that Vermont came within what was then thought to be the jurisdiction of New Hampshire, and was accordingly claimed as a part of that colony. Grants made, 1749, by Benning Wentworth, governor of New Hampshire, of several parcels of land between the Connecticut and Hudson rivers, and a township of six miles square laid out, called Bennington, in allusion to the governor's name.

3. The commencement of hostilities by the French, in 1754, stopped improvements, and put the inhabitants to flight.

4. After the surrender of Montreal, in 1760, this country became more generally known, and, in the course of one year succeeding, not less than 60 townships were laid out by the government of New Hampshire. The cultivation increased with surprising rapidity.

5. Vermont claimed by the province of New York, by virtue of an obsolete grant from Charles II. to his brother the Duke of York; a proclamation issued by governor Colden, in 1763, invalidating the titles given by New Hampshire; and in 1764 the claim of New York to the jurisdiction, but not to the soil, was confirmed by the crown. This act of the British government, however well intended, was abused by the government of New York: attempts being made to eject the settlers by force of arms, a civil war ensued.

6. The inhabitants petitioned the crown for protection; and, in the year 1767, George III. interposed to stop the violent proceeding of New York, but without full effect. In 1774, the governor of New York issued a proclamation, setting a premium on the heads of E. Allen, Seth Warner, and six others of the chiefs of Vermont: they published a counter declaration in which they threatened "to kill and

destroy any person or persons that were accessory, or any way assisting to the taking of them." In this state of confusion the business remained until the breaking out of the revolutionary war; when the inhabitants renounced allegiance to every government but their own.

7. State Constitution framed, July 4, 1786, revised and amended July 4, 1793.

8. Federal Constitution ratified by a great majority, January 10, 1791.

9. Admitted as a member of the American Confederacy, March 4, 1791.

RELIGION. As the inhabitants of Vermont emigrated principally from Massachusetts and Connecticut they are mostly Congregationalists; one township settled chiefly by Scotch are Covenanters or Seceders. No man is obliged to contribute to the support of any minister but his own, or is excluded from civil offices on account of his particular religious sentiments. Two grants in every township are appropriated for the support of the clergy, and for building of places of public worship.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The government of this state is one of the most simple, and has the least to recommend it to the imitation of wise men, of any in the Union. The executive power is vested in a governor, chosen annually by the people, by a majority of votes. There is no restraint on his re-eligibility, nor any provision made for his salary by the constitution; and a residence of four years seems to be a sufficient qualification to entitle any successful candidate to the office. With the concurrence of the executive council, he appoints all officers, except where the constitution or some particular law has otherwise directed; he may remit fines, and grant pardons except for treason, murder, or cases of impeachment. With the assistance of the judge of the Supreme Court, he may hold a court to try impeachments. He is president of the executive council, ex-officio, in which he has merely a casting vote; but with their consent he may suspend the enacting any law during one session of assembly.—The legislature is a single branch, and is styled the *General Assembly*. It is elected by the people annually; in conjunction with the executive council, they appoint all the principal civil and military officers. The consent of two thirds is necessary to impose taxes, and to impeach criminals. No qua-

lification required but a residence in the state two years prior to election.—The Judiciary officers are appointed by the assembly and council, as has been noticed. The courts consist of a Supreme Court, whose jurisdiction extends over the state, and county courts established in the several counties.—Every freeman who has resided in the state one year, and is 21 years of age, has a right to vote at elections.—There is an extraordinary article in the constitution of the state, which provides that, when an office becomes so profitable as to occasion *many* applications for it, the profits thereof shall be diminished. Judicial proceedings are governed by the acts of assembly, and the common law of England. This state sends two Senators and four Representatives to the general Congress. Senators are appointed by the Assembly; Representatives by the people, in districts: a majority is requisite in a first attempt, but a plurality will suffice in others.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. This state is divided into eleven counties, and these into townships, which are generally six miles square, and about 250 in number. In every of these townships there are two lots, of 350 acres each, appropriated for the support of schools, and the maintenance of the first minister of the gospel who settles in the township.—When the last census was taken in the year 1800 the inhabitants of Vermont amounted to 154,379: no slaves. The increase in the last preceding 10 years was 68,626. Under 16 years 81,104 above 72,804. The militia of the state amounts at least to 20,000 men, hardy and well trained. These form two divisions, including seven brigades, one on the west, and the other on the east side of the mountain.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES. The taxable property in Vermont was rated in 1791 at 1,082,600 dollars. At present it must be nearly doubled. In the year 1792, the public revenues amounted to 11,240 dollars, and the ordinary expenses of government about 10,800 dollars, being hardly one-eighth of a dollar per head.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. In describing the manners, customs, and language of the inhabitants of the Green mountains, it is sufficient to say they are New England men; a brave and hardy race, frugal, laborious and zealously attached to a republican form of government. With them also they partake of certain provincial idioms, which

are not reconcileable to the purity of the English language.—As the means of supporting a family are easily acquired, the people are generally encouraged to marry early.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. In no state is there more attention shewn to have all the children taught to read, write, and understand the rules of common arithmetic. This they justly esteem necessary to carry on any of the ordinary pursuits of life, and it would be thought dishonourable to the parents, if their children were ignorant of either. To promote this useful purpose, the government has set apart a lot of 350 acres in every township, for the support of schools. Besides these common seminaries, spread every where through the state, there is a flourishing academy at Middlebury, and another at Peacham; and in 1791, the government passed an act for erecting an University at Burlington, on lake Champlain, for the support of which thirty thousand acres of land have been set apart, besides 6000*l*. which was secured by donation.

CHIEF TOWNS. The principal towns of this state are Bennington, Windsor, and Rutland, each of them the heads of counties of the same names, and the two latter, alternately the seat of government. Each contains between two and three thousand inhabitants. Bennington is distinguished by being the scene of an engagement, during the revolutionary war, between the New England militia and an advanced party of the British army, consisting principally of foreigners and commanded by a foreign officer; which terminated in the success of American arms, and was a prelude to the defeat and captivity of Burgoyne's army, as well as a proof of the inattention or incapacity of the commander in chief.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The body of the people of Vermont are engaged in agriculture. The land is new and the price moderate; and there being no seaport to attract the people to the pursuits of commerce, they are necessarily engaged in cultivating the earth: an employment the most innocent, honourable, and useful. Nevertheless domestic manufactures are not neglected. The greatest part of the farmers manufacture the woollens and linens used in their own families. The soil and climate seem favourable to sheep as well as flax.—As the country abounds in excellent iron ore, it has naturally introduced various coarse manufactories of that article. It is some

years since there were erected in the state, 21 forges and three furnaces from which large quantities of bar iron, as well as nails are produced annually. The manufacture of pot and pearl ashes is still more extensive.—In the year 1791, the inhabitants made as much as 1000 tons, and in one township in the year 1794, eighty-three families only produced 14,000 pounds of maple sugar. Their principal commercial intercourse is with Albany and New York. The amount of their exports in 1802 was 31,479 dollars.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. As Vermont lies between the 42° and 45° north lat. and a large part of the land is intersected by a range of lofty mountains, the cold that prevails is early and severe: the frosts begin from the first to the middle of September, and cease about the beginning of June. On the 19th of March 1789, the ground was frozen to the depth of three feet eight inches. The ice on the lakes and stagnant waters is generally 30 inches thick. The greatest height of the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer, during the years 1789—90 and 91, was 93½°, and the least height 27° below 0. The fall of water in one year (1789) was 41,179 inches.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The land of this state is generally of a fertile nature, "the soil deep and of a dark colour, rich, moist, warm, and loomy." "It bears corn and other kinds of grain, in large quantities, as soon as it is cleared of the wood, without any ploughing or preparation; and after the first crop, naturally turns to rich pasture." Of course the quantities of wheat, rye, barley, and other nutritious grain, which are raised annually, are very considerable; but as the state possesses no seaport, and the expense of land carriage is comparatively great, not much more of these articles have been cultivated, than sufficed for internal consumption.

RIVERS AND LAKES. All the streams and rivers of Vermont take their rise in the Green Mountains. About 35 of them have an easterly direction and fall into the Connecticut river; about 25 run westerly and discharge themselves into lake Champlain; and two or three running in the same direction fall into Hudson's river. The most considerable streams on the west side are Otter creek, Onion river, the river Lamoille and Michiscoui. Onion river is one of the finest streams in Vermont, but none of the fore-mentioned are navigable, even by boats, more than seven

miles from its mouth. On the east side the rivers are not so large, but are more numerous than on the west; the largest are West river, White river, and Poousoom-suck. Connecticut river, into which the last mentioned streams fall, forms the eastern boundary of the state, and is one of the finest streams in New England. This river, which rises in the mountains that divide Canada from the United States, after running about 400 miles through the country, and affording a navigation for vessels of 100 tons burthen, fifty miles from its mouth, discharges into the ocean at Saybrook in Connecticut. Lake Champlain is the largest collection of waters in this part of the United States. In length, extending from Fairhaven to St. John's, it is about 200 miles, and in width from one to eighteen miles. It contains several islands; one of them, the Grand Isle, is 24 miles long, and from two to four miles wide. It is generally frozen over by the middle of January, affording a safe road for travellers, and about the middle of April, the ice generally goes off. Part only of the lake Memphremagog lies within the limits of Vermont, the other part in Canada; this lake is about 40 miles in length, and between two and three miles wide.

MOUNTAINS. A chain of high mountains, running nearly north and south, divides this state almost through the centre, having Connecticut river on one side, and lake Champlain and Hudson river on the other. The natural growth of this range is hemlock, pine, spruce, and other ever-greens: hence it has always a green appearance, and on this account it obtained the descriptive name of Verd Mont, or Green Mountain. On some elevated parts of this mountain the snow lies till June: Killington Peak, which is one of the highest parts, being computed to be 3454 feet above the level of the ocean.

VEGETABLE, ANIMAL, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. When the Europeans first landed on the shores of America, it was a world of woods, and presented to the eye of the curious traveller, a most magnificent prospect; and this is still the case with much the largest part of Vermont, abounding in trees, plants, and flowers, almost infinite in number. Of these we shall enumerate only a few of the most common and useful. The trees most common are pines of various species, maple, beach, ash, elm, oak, chesnut, hickory, cedar, poplar, and willow. Of the fruit

bearing trees, shrubs, and vines, the kinds are numerous, as plums of various species, cherry, juniper, mulberry, gooseberry, currant, blackberry, raspberry, strawberry, and several kinds of grapes, together with numerous other articles of the vegetable kingdom, which we are obliged to omit. Of quadrupeds, Vermont contains 36 different species. Her extensive forests shelter the moose, bear, wolf, deer, fox, wild cat, racoon, hare, rabbit, squirrel, &c. her ponds and lakes, the beaver, musk-rat, mink, and otter; and most of the feathered and insect tribes are found here, that are common to the American states. The principal mineral, is iron ore, of which we have already taken ample notice.

MASSACHUSETTS,

INCLUDING

MAINE.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES. MASSACHUSETTS (which, including the district of Maine, constitutes one of the United States,) is bounded on the north by Vermont, and New Hampshire; on the east by the Atlantic ocean; on the south by the Atlantic, Rhode Island and Connecticut; and on the west by New York. This state (Maine included,) extends from $41^{\circ} 13'$, to $48^{\circ} 15'$ N. latitude, and from $1^{\circ} 30'$ to $10^{\circ} 15'$ east longitude from Philadelphia, or from 65° to $73^{\circ} 45'$ W. from London; and contains about 40,000 square miles.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. This state derives its name from the bay of *Massachusetts*, and that from a powerful tribe of natives, the ancient proprietors; though the Monnegins, Narraganzetts and Pequods, are names of frequent occurrence in the early history of the country, and probably possessed a portion of it at the time the English landed: for it is known that the tribes were many, and none of them contained any great number of people. Although this territory was granted by King James, as early as 1606, to a company of wealthy men, with Sir John

Popham, Chief Justice of England, at their head, all their exertions were feeble and unfortunate, till religion animated some of the English dissenters to settle on this western continent. The first successful adventurers were a religious society who had fled from England, and seated themselves at Leyden, in Holland, under the direction of John Robinson, their pastor : but finding that their community was like to decline instead of increasing, among the Dutch, they petitioned King James for permission to transport themselves and families to New England. Meeting with some slight encouragement, one hundred and twenty persons embarked in a single ship, and landed in November 1620, at a place afterwards called Plymouth, in Plymouth county, which is still commemorated as the cradle of the New England colonies.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1. A patent granted by the Plymouth Council to Sir Henry Roswell and five others, in 1627, for a very extensive tract of country extending three miles south of Charles-river, and three north of Merrimack, and from sea to sea : but this instrument conveyed only a right to the soil, none to the government.

2. A royal charter was obtained in 1628 : the first governor and assistants appointed by the crown : their successors to be appointed by the corporation. The power of making laws for internal government committed to the body of the people.

3. The patent and government transferred to Massachusetts from the council residing in England in 1629.

4. The first general court held by the people at large in 1631. At this court it was agreed, that in future the freemen should choose assistants, and these elect from among themselves, governor and deputy governor, who should have the power of making laws and appointing officers. At the next general court the freemen resume their privileges, and pass a law, that "none but church members should be admitted to the freedom of the body politic," which continued in force till the dissolution of the government.

5. The year 1636 was distinguished by a dispute between Cotton and Hooker, two influential clergymen of Massachusetts ; the latter left the colony in disgust or was driven out, and drawing with him one hundred followers, they moved into Connecticut, and settled the townships of Hartford, Springfield and Weathersfield.

6. An exterminating war was waged about this time, by the conjoined arms of Massachusetts and Connecticut, against the Pequod Indians. This tribe, which, before the war could muster 1000 warriors, was nearly extirpated: of the prisoners taken a part was shipped to Bermudas and the West Indies, and sold for slaves, some were retained as slaves in Massachusetts and Connecticut, and others were given up to the Narraganset Indians, allies of the colonies, to be tortured to death.

About this period, 1636, there was another schism in the Massachusetts church, occasioned by a Mrs. Hutchinson and the reverend Roger Williams; they were banished, and began the settlement of a new colony in Rhode Island, where they experienced more friendship from the savages than from the bigots of Massachusetts.

7. Emigration to New England ceased about the year 1640; the republicans having obtained the ascendant in old England.

8. In the year 1646, certain members of the church of England and Scotland petitioned the general court for the restoration of their rights as freemen, complaining that they were taxed by an assembly where they were not represented, and bound by laws to which they had not consented; for which act they were fined and imprisoned as opposers of government. And when they endeavoured to carry their complaints to the British Parliament, the general court attempted to seize their papers and obstruct their embarkation.

9. The year 1648 was distinguished by a rage against witchcraft. M. Jones, of Charleston, was tried, condemned and executed for this supposed crime; and her husband who, being alarmed for his own safety, had embarked for Barbadoes, was seized and committed to prison, because the ship was seen to roll, while he was on board.

10. In the year 1656, began the persecution against the Quakers, and continued with little intermission till 1661, when it was stopped by the interposition of royal authority. While the tragedy lasted, a great number were whipped, and imprisoned; some had their tongues bored and four were hanged. The mad pranks of these enthusiasts had risen to such an alarming height, that King Charles sent over commissioners in 1665, to take the judicial authority

out of the hands of the existing administration, and establish a milder system.

11. About the year 1674, broke out an obstinate and bloody war with the savages, called in the New England annals, Philip's war. This war was occasioned, in some measure, by an attempt to subjugate the Indians to the laws of the colony, and to treat their king as a subject; summoning him and other chiefs to appear before the tribunals of the colony. It raged with various success for several years; but terminated in the success of the English. Some of the prisoners taken were tried and executed, and others were sold as slaves to the West India planters.

12. In 1692. The old charter abrogated, and a new one obtained from King William, by which the appointment of governor was vested in the crown, and every inhabitant of 40*l*. sterling personal estate was entitled to vote for representatives. This new charter included the colony of Plymouth, and the Province of Maine under the same government, as well as the province of Nova Scotia; but the latter was afterwards separated, and erected into a distinct jurisdiction. This year was distinguished by a revival of the rage against witchcraft which flamed with redoubled violence. Hundreds were accused, and many condemned and executed for various imaginary crimes.

13. The small pox made terrible havoc among the inhabitants about 1721. Inoculation introduced by Dr. Boylston, beginning with his own family, but reprobated with religious horror by a great majority of the people.

14. 1725. A treaty with the Indians, succeeded by a wiser and juster conduct towards them, secured the tranquillity of the province for many years.

15. The reduction of Louisburg (in cape Breton) planned and executed, principally, by forces from the New England provinces.

16. The French make encroachments on the British colonies, exciting the savages to murder the inhabitants, in 1754. Massachusetts petitions the British government for succour; describing their "distressed circumstances," and inability to "maintain a force necessary for their defence."

17. The stamp act in 1765. The ships put in mourning, the bells muffled, and the act printed with a death's head affixed to it, and hawked about the streets of Boston. The

act, and the effigies of its principal patrons burnt in the public places. The act repealed by the British Parliament in 1766.

18. In 1768 the assembly of Massachusetts write circular letters to the other colonies, inviting them to unite in opposing the acts of the British Parliament.

19. Upon the seizure of a sloop laden with wines, in order to secure the duties payable thereon, the people of Boston burnt a boat belonging to the collector, pelted the commissioners with stones, attacked their houses, and forced them to take refuge on board the Romney man of war for their safety. The assembly dissolved, the people meet in a convention, they appoint a day for public fasting and prayer, and publish a recommendation to the people to furnish themselves with arms.

20. In 1770 a riot in Boston, in which the mob attack the soldiers on guard, and by various provocations force them to fire, by which five persons were killed. The bodies of the rioters carried to their graves with the farce of a pompous public mourning.

21. Proposals originate in Boston, for calling a general congress of delegates from all the provinces, to meet at Philadelphia, which accordingly met July 1774.

22. Four delegates appointed June 17, 1774, to meet the general congress.

23. In April 1775, happened what is called the battle of Lexington, an issue to which some had long laboured to bring the dispute between Great Britain and her colonies, and which was succeeded in July of the next year, by a renunciation of the government of Great Britain, and the declaration of independence.

24. State constitution framed, March 2, 1780, revised and continued in 1795.

25. Federal constitution ratified, February 6, 1788, by 187 to 168 votes.

RELIGION. The predominant religious sect in Massachusetts is that of the Congregationalists. They comprise four-fifths of the inhabitants. All religions are tolerated, and apparently equal; but every person residing in the state is obliged to contribute to the maintenance of public Protestant worship, to his own teachers, if he has any, otherwise to the parson of the parish where he resides,

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The supreme executive authority is vested in a governor, who is chosen annually by the people at large. To assure his election he must obtain a majority of all the votes returned, and if neither of the candidates has a majority, the senate appoints one of the two highest. He must have resided in the state seven years preceding his election, be possessed of a freehold estate worth 1000*l.* and make a public declaration of his belief in the Christian religion. He has an executive council of nine persons to advise with, of which he is president ex-officio, but has no vote therein. He has a power to assemble the council whenever public business requires; he may pardon criminals, except in cases of impeachment; negative bills except when two-thirds of the general court concur to enact. He commissions all officers, and, with the advice of his council, appoints judges, attorney and solicitor general, sheriffs, coroners and registers of probate. In case of absence, sickness, or other inability, his place is supplied by a lieutenant-governor, who is always a member of the council, and presides there when the governor is not present.

The power of legislation is lodged in the *general court*, which consists of two branches, a senate, and a house of representatives. They are both elected by the people annually.—The senate consists of 31 members, who must have resided in the state five years prior to their election, and each possess a freehold worth 300*l.* or other property worth 600*l.* They sit as judges on all impeachments.—A residence in the state of one year, and a freehold of 100*l.* or other property worth 200*l.* are all the qualifications required in a representative. The origination of money bills, and the power of impeaching state criminals, rest in the house of representatives. In other respects the powers of the two branches are equal—Conjointly they appoint the secretary, and treasurer of the state, the notaries public, and naval officers.—The travelling expences to and from the annual sessions of the general court are paid from the public treasury, and their compensation for attendance on the legislature, by their respective townships.—All freemen 21 years of age, who have resided one year, and possess an annual income of 3*l.* or other estate worth 60*l.* are entitled to vote at elections—The judges are appointed as has been mentioned, by the governor and council, and hold their commissions during behaviour, nor can their salaries be dimi-

nished while in office. Justices of peace are appointed for seven years, but all the judiciary officers may be removed at any time by an impeachment, or a complaint presented to the governor by a joint vote of both houses of legislature.—This state sends two senators and 17 representatives to the general congress. Senators are appointed by concurrent ballots of the two branches of the general court; representatives are elected in the districts by a majority of votes. The common law of England is the rule of judicial proceedings, except when it is opposed to some specific law of the state.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The commonwealth of Massachusetts (proper) is divided into 14 counties, and subdivided into 355 townships, which in 1800 contained 422,845 inhabitants, no slaves; increase in 10 years 44,058; population about 67 persons to a square mile. From the beginning of the American revolution to this time, the progress of population has been slow. In 1773 it was computed that there were 300,000 inhabitants in this province. In 1790 there were 378,787, which gives a difference of 78,787 in eighteen years. From 1790 to 1800, the increase was 44,058, which is still less in proportion to the number of people. Before the revolution, the ratio of increase was much greater. In 1751 the inhabitants were computed to be 164,484; in 1773 they had risen as above mentioned to 300,000 the difference 135,516 in 22 years, or a duplication in about 26 years. Females to males throughout the state as 103 to 100; in Boston as 12 to 11. Of both sexes, under 16 years there were 187,747, and above that age 228,646.

The militia of Massachusetts is very respectable: by the returns made to the governor, they were computed at about 60,000 effective men, completely armed and disciplined; in which number there is a full proportion of cavalry and artillery.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES. The annual expences of the civil list are about 116,000 dollars, which is about 21 cents per head. The funded debt of the state was 1,334,170 dollars in the year 1801: to meet which, and to discharge the contingent expences of the year, the state possesses various kinds of stocks, which with a moderate tax, &c. amounts to 2,070,960 dollars. The revenue arises

principally from taxes on polls and real property, from imposts, excises, and sales of new land.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. The men of this state are generally tall, stout and well proportioned, and many of the women handsome; they have generally fair, fresh and healthful countenances, mingled with a considerable degree of delicacy and information. The inhabitants of New England have been remarked for their hospitality as well as for a degree of inquisitiveness which borders on impertinence, and, before the war, for a scrupulous observance of the Sabbath which had the appearance of superstition and bigotry. This reverence for religious institutions introduced and preserved among them the custom of annually celebrating fasts and thanksgivings; and has been the means of preserving in New England more, at least of the appearance of religion, than is observable in the middle or southern states. As the inhabitants are almost universally of English descent, and a general attention has been paid to education, the English language has been preserved pretty free from corruption: among some of the country people there are a few provincial idioms, and a peculiar enunciation, which distinguish them from their neighbours—but this is more or less the case in all other countries.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. Massachusetts has been distinguished from its earliest period for a wise attention to the cultivation of useful knowledge. By a law of the commonwealth every town having fifty householders is obliged to provide a schoolmaster to teach children to read and write; and where there are 100 families, to establish and support a grammar school.—The university of Cambridge (formerly Harvard college) takes its date as early as the year 1638. This institution which is established about four miles from Boston, consists of four elegant brick edifices, comprising three halls and a chapel, and is enriched with a valuable library, and a museum containing numerous curiosities, and a splendid philosophical apparatus. It has generally from 120 to 150 students. There are besides this principal seminary five or six academies in different parts of the state for teaching English and French, the Greek and Latin languages, as well as all the liberal arts and sciences, most of which are well endowed, and in a flourishing state.

CHIEF TOWNS. Boston is the capital, not only of Massachusetts, but of all New England. It is built in a very irregular manner, on a peninsula, at the bottom of Massachusetts bay ; containing 2870 dwelling houses, and 24,937 inhabitants. The harbour is safe, and large enough to entertain 500 ships at anchor in a good depth of water. Its quays and wharves are very convenient : one of the latter extends 600 yards into the bay, and far exceeds any other structure of the kind in the United States. The principal public buildings are, the state house, Faneuil hall, an alms-house, work-house, bridewell, and sixteen places of religious worship : some of these edifices are spacious and elegant. The entrance of the harbour is guarded by a castle on which are mounted about forty pieces of heavy artillery, besides a great number of smaller size. The most considerable town, after Boston, is Salem, which in 1800 had 9,457 inhabitants. At the same period Newbury-Port contained 5,946 inhabitants. Berwick 3,891, Taunton 3,860, and Plymouth 3,524. But this state is filled with small towns and villages of from one to two thousand inhabitants.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. Massachusetts can boast of more enterprising and industrious mariners than any other district of the union, and they are mostly natives. Their exports consist of New England rum, potash, lumber, fish, and the produce of the fisheries, which in the year 1802 amounted to 13,492,632 dollars. Their imports are not quite equal in value ; so that the balance of trade is considerably in their favour. Their chief manufactures are rum, pot and pearl ashes, linseed oil, cast iron, cannon, cordage, chocolate, spermaceti candles, and womens' shoes. Of this last article 170,000 pair have been made, and most of them exported annually. This state is sufficiently stocked with banks of discount and deposits ; there being not less than 18 or 20 in its several trading towns.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The greatest part of Massachusetts enjoys a climate and seasons auspicious to the health and longevity of its inhabitants, as it has been computed that one in seven lives to the age of 70 years. The winters are long and severe, but the air is generally dry and clear. The severe weather commences about the middle of December, and the farmer commonly houses his cattle till the beginning of May, some years later. The heat of summer is sometimes intense, but not of long continuance, as the

prevailing winds are from the west and north-west, the elevated region of frost and snow. The extremes of heat and cold are from 20 below to 100 above 0 in the open air—the medium about 50. According to observations made at Cambridge in 1784 and 1788, the fall of water is annually about 35 1-2 inches.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. Whatever is the cause, the soil of this state has been too sterile to produce wheat for more than a century. This grain was raised in large crops till the year 1664, when it was first blasted. "This is represented as an unusual thing at the time, but continued more or less for divers years together, until the people were discouraged from sowing;" and at present most of the wheat flour consumed in the state is imported. On the sea coast the land is low, and mostly sandy. About thirty miles from the shore the soil improves, and between the mountains is cultivated to advantage, exhibiting rich meadows valuable crops of flax, rye, Indian corn, and other summer grain. Orchards are also numerous and very productive of the choicest fruits. In short the farmers of Massachusetts live in plenty and independence, and are remarked for their hospitality.

RIVERS, BAYS AND ISLANDS. Massachusetts is irrigated by numerous streams. One of the largest is Merrimack river, which runs through the north-eastern part of the state, and discharges itself into the sea about two miles below Newburyport. Charles River which rises from several sources in Hopkinton and Holliston ridges, passes by Cambridge, and falls into Boston harbour. Taunton river rising in the blue mountains, passes nearly in a strait south-west course to Tiverton on Narragansett-bay. Concord, Mystic, Medford, Deerfield, Ipswich, and Westfield are all rivers of this state but of inferior note. The principal bays are Boston Bay, Cape Cod and Buzzard's bay; and the only islands worthy of notice are Martha's vineyard, and Nantucket: the latter is principally inhabited by fishermen, and has produced some of the most expert and enterprising whalers in the world. The soil is very little better than a sand heap, and the inhabitants amount to about 5,600: they are chiefly of the society of Friends, and are distinguished for the peace and harmony that prevails among them.

MOUNTAINS. The principal ranges of mountains are in the western part of the state, and furnish most of

the springs that feed Connecticut river. There are none remarkably high, the most elevated called Wachusset, being about 3000 feet above the level of the sea. They run pretty nearly in a north and south direction, nearly parallel with the course of the river above mentioned.

VEGETABLE, ANIMAL AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.

The forest trees of Massachusetts are the same as those of Vermont, and the other New England states. Most of the valuable fruit trees flourish here, particularly the apple, the pear, and the peach, though the latter has suffered, as it has in most of the other states, from the ravages of a grub that attacks its roots : and in some situations by the eastern winds. The principal grains that are produced are Indian corn, rye, barley and oats, and some wheat from the new lands, in the western parts of the state : potatoes, hops, field beans, and peas are raised in plentiful crops, as well as most of the useful kinds of grass ; to the cultivation of the latter the soil and climate of Massachusetts are well adapted. There is some iron ore in the state but not very good : a valuable copper mine has been discovered in Hampshire county ; and in other parts red and yellow ochre, slate, limestone, and asbestos. But Massachusetts' most valuable mines are the fisheries.

MAIN.

MAIN is a district of Massachusetts, and of course subject to the same laws and government. It extends about 300 miles in length and about 100 in breadth, and is bounded on the N. W. by the high lands which separate the rivers that fall into the St. Lawrence, from those that run into the Atlantic ; on the E. by the river St. Croix, and a line drawn due N. from its source to the said high lands, which divides the Main from Nova Scotia ; on the S. E. by the Atlantic ; and on the W. by N. Hampshire, lying between the 43° and 48° of north latitude. It is divided into six counties, and has about 150,000 inhabitants. The chief town is Portland, a seaport, containing about 3,700 inhabitants : the principal trade is in fish and lumber. This is a broken mountainous country, but possesses some very rich lands, and is advancing rapidly in improvements, which will probably give it a title, in a few years, to independence

and self-government. The inhabitants having emigrated from Massachusetts and the other N. E. states, partake of their manners, customs and character. Being situated to the north of all the other states, and bounded on the N. W. by a range of high mountains, the climate is cold, the rivers and lakes being commonly frozen over from Christmas to the middle of March. Nor are the summers free from excessive heat.

RHODE ISLAND.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES. THIS state includes what was formerly called Rhode Island and Providence plantations, and is situated between 41° and 42° north latitude, and between 3° and 4° degrees east longitude from Philadelphia, or about 71° west from London, being in length 47, and breadth 37 miles ; in superficial contents about 1300 square miles.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. Rhode Island was originally the hunting and fishing ground of the Narragansett Indians, and was conveyed by them between the years 1634 and 1638 to certain English settlers, who fled hither from the intolerant spirit of the Massachusetts rulers. Those puritans, who, rather than conform to the ritual of the Episcopal church, had fled to the wilds of America, were no sooner invested with power than they persecuted all who could not swallow their formulary, with more cruelty than themselves had suffered under the mitred bigots of England. Roger Williams, a very respectable clergyman, being condemned for holding a variety of speculative errors, was banished from Massachusetts, and afterwards from Plymouth, whither he first fled for asylum. He then removed to Providence, without the precincts of Massachusetts, and was entertained with great hospitality by the natives, who granted a tract of land to him and his brother exiles, about twenty in number. These were followed

soon after by another small company, who settled on Rhode Island, with the best of titles, the free permission of the aboriginal proprietors. The first chief magistrate of this little community was a Mr. Coddington, who was elected by the people, and in consideration of his distinguished virtues, was invested with a patriarchal authority.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1. The settlement of the Rev. Roger Williams and his followers at Providence, in 1634—5, and of Mr. Coddington and his company on Rhode Island.

2. An agent from the company was sent to England, in 1643, and obtained a patent for the province, from the earl of Warwick and council, under the title of, "A free and absolute charter of civil incorporation, for Providence Plantations in Narragansett bay."

3. As the inhabitants had felt the rod of persecution, they were wise enough to establish a free toleration, and perfect equality for all religious societies. In the year 1644 the Baptists built a meeting house at Providence, and another congregation of the same sect was formed in 1653. The peaceable Quakers also found in this colony an asylum which was refused to them in every other part of New England.

4. The above said patent lasted till the restoration, when the company obtained a charter from King Charles II. in 1663, under the style and title of "The English colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations in New England"—and this charter has been the ground work of their civil government from that to the present time.

5. In 1710, the colony raised a company of soldiers to assist in the abortive expedition against Canada, and in the same year they issued the first emission of paper currency.

6. In 1738, the colony was filled with inhabitants, and there were above 100 sail of vessels belonging to the town of Newport.

7. In 1744, there was another emission of 160,000*l.* (old tenor) distributed among the people by law, at four per cent. per ann. which soon depreciated.

8. In 1750, the former emissions, followed by another more enormous, the whole amounting to 525,335*l.* (old tenor) which completely ruined the credit of paper money, as well as the moral character of the people.

9. In 1773, a violent outrage committed on the *Gaspee*, an armed schooner belonging to his Britannic majesty, stationed at Providence to prevent smuggling. The crime of smuggling was the peculiar sin of New England, and was as operative in bringing about the revolution as any other single cause ; and perhaps the same motive, united with a fondness for the African trade, had some effect in producing, in the state of Rhode Island, so strong an opposition to the adoption of the Federal Constitution.

10. Two delegates appointed to meet the first general congress at Philadelphia, August 10, 1774.

11. Federal Constitution ratified by a small majority (34 against 32) on 29th of May, 1790.

RELIGION. In this state all religious sects are on a basis of perfect equality. The people pay no taxes for the support of any denomination : the ministers depend wholly on the liberality of their hearers for support, as no contract formed between them is valid in law. The most numerous sect is that of the baptists, who are subdivided into Calvinistic, Arminian, and Sabbatarian, or seventh day baptists. All together they constitute thirty congregations: the other religious sects are congregationalists, friends or quakers, moravians, &c.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. It is a little remarkable that when the American revolution set so many constitution-mongers to work in all the states, except this and Connecticut, that these two should be satisfied with their ancient forms of government, derived from their respective royal charters. But this circumstance proves that the people were happy under their ancient regime, and that their rulers thought if any changes were necessary, they might be introduced occasionally, without combating inveterate habits and prejudices—The charter granted by king Charles II. to this colony was dated in 1663. By this instrument the freemen elect their executive chief (who is stiled governor) and a deputy governor, annually. He must be a resident, and freeholder in the state, and may be re-elected as long as the majority pleases. By virtue of his office, he is president of the court of assistants, but has only a single vote ; with the concurrence of the two houses he appoints and commissions all the judiciary and executive officers of government, except the secretary and

treasurer, who are elected by the freemen. With the same limitation he may remove for misconduct, and fill vacancies by new appointments.—The legislative authority is lodged in the *General Assembly*, which comprises two branches ; the court of *Assistance*, consisting of 10 members who form the upper council, and the *Representatives*, consisting of 70 members who constitute the lower house. Both are elected by the freemen ; the former annually and the latter semi-annually. The qualifications requisite in both, are a residence in the state, and a freehold worth 40*l.* or an annual rent of forty shillings—Conjointly with the governor they make and repeal laws, and may award new trials in courts of judicature.—There are five judges of the Supreme court who hold their offices during good behaviour. This court extends over the state and is held twice a year. In each county there are courts of Common Pleas and Quarter Sessions, held also twice a year for the trial of inferior matters. Rhode Island sends two Senators and two Representatives to the general Congress. Senators are appointed by a joint ballot of the two houses : Representatives are elected by a *majority* of the people.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The state of Rhode Island comprises five counties, which are subdivided into thirty townships, containing together 69,122 inhabitants, of whom 380 are slaves. Of these 30,847 are under 16 years, and 35,591 above. The population is about 53 persons to a square mile. The increase of inhabitants in this state during the last 10 years is very insignificant (not quite 300) owing to an excessive emigration to Vermont and other new states. In no point of view has Rhode Island gained by the American revolution. Her form of government is unchanged ; she chooses all her own officers, and makes her own laws ; so she did formerly ; but her trade and commerce are retrograde, and her population almost stationary. Between the years 1730 and 1748, her increase of people was in a ratio of duplication in 21 years, and from 1761 to 1774 in something less than 28 years. From the last period to the present time, an interval of 30 years, she has not gained 10,000 inhabitants, and her former metropolis, one of the finest harbours in the United States, famed for its mild and salubrious air, as well as the hospitality of its inhabitants, is mouldering into ruins.

LANGUAGE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The language of this as well as all the other North-American States is English. The urbanity and hospitality of the Rhode Islanders, have often been noticed to their praise. The women are distinguished no less for their domestic virtues, than their fine persons and delicate complexions. Nor are the men less remarkable for enormous emissions of paper money, and iniquitous tender laws, which have contributed not a little to the general declension of the state.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. The principal seminary is a college at Providence. It was incorporated in 1764, by an act of the general assembly, framed upon the most liberal principles. A due proportion of the trustees are to be chosen, in *perpetuum*, from the various denominations of baptists, friends, episcopalians, and congregationalists, with this single distinction, that the president must always be a baptist. The number of fellows is 12; the professors and other officers of instruction are chosen promiscuously out of any religious denomination. The edifice is situated on an eminence to the east of the town; is built of brick, four stories high, 150 feet long by 46 wide; and contains 48 rooms for students, besides eight larger ones for public uses. Nearly all the funds of the institution are placed at interest in the treasury of the state, and amount to about 2000/.

There is also a flourishing academy at Newport, where the learned languages, English grammar, geography, &c. are taught. But some writers have observed, that the education of youth has not been attended to as assiduously in Rhode Island, as in the other New England states.

CHIEF TOWNS. The only towns in this state worthy of notice, are Newport and Providence. The first of these, which was formerly the seat of government, was founded in the year 1639, almost half a century before Philadelphia. The situation is beautiful, and its harbour one of the finest in the world, capable of containing a large fleet at safe anchorage, but though it possesses these natural advantages and once flourished in arts and commerce, it is now visibly on the decline. The houses amount to about 1000, which are principally of wood, and the inhabitants 6739. It has nine edifices for public worship, a state house,

and a public library, all the production of more prosperous days. The library was founded, in the year 1747, by Abraham Redwood who presented the institution with 1294 volumes, valued at 500*l.* sterling: in honour of its munificent patron, it is styled the *Redwood library*. The building consists of one large room, 36 feet long, 26 feet broad, and 19 feet high, with two small offices adjoining which form the wings of the principal edifice. This part has a portico supported by four columns, and the entrance into the library is by a flight of steps the whole width of the portico. But this elegant building is at present much out of repair, and a large proportion of what was once a very valuable collection of books is dispersed and lost.

Providence, which is now the seat of government, is situated on the main, about 30 miles N. W. of Newport. According to the census of 1800, it then contained a few more than 7000 inhabitants. This is by far the most flourishing town in the state: it enjoys a considerable foreign commerce, as well as inland trade, being surrounded by a rich and highly cultivated country. Its chief public buildings are a college, besides four or five places of public worship: one of them belonging to the baptists, is a very respectable edifice. In this town is a bank and insurance company.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The most considerable manufactures in Rhode Island are of iron, as bar and sheet iron, nail rods, anchors, &c. They distil large quantities of rum, most of which is shipped to the coast of Africa; they manufacture paper, chocolate, cotton and woolcards, and have lately established a considerable manufactory of cotton, where they weave jeans, fustins, denims, &c. The export trade of the state consists principally of cheese, barley, flaxseed, lumber, fish, horses, cattle and rum, which in 1802 amounted to 2,433,263 dollars. The imports are of European, East and West India goods, to a still greater amount; but the loss of the very profitable circuitous commerce which Rhode Island enjoyed, while under the British government, has been severely felt, as is evidenced by the numerous emigrations of its inhabitants.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The air of Rhode Island is remarkably salubrious. Newport has long been the resort of valetudinarians, particularly from all the southern

states, both heat and cold being moderated by the great body of surrounding salt water.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil of this state seems better adapted in general, for pasture than for grain. It is noted therefore for its large flocks of sheep and herds of black cattle ; its dairies, its butter and cheese of the first quality, many tons of the latter being exported every year, to the neighbouring states, and the West India Islands. The land, nevertheless, produces corn, rye, barley, oats, flax, and most of the culinary vegetables, in great abundance and perfection.

RIVERS, BAYS AND ISLANDS. The two principal rivers in this state, are Providence and Taunton. On the former of these is built the town of Providence, about 30 miles above Narragansett bay ; the other is navigable by small craft as far as Taunton, the town from which it takes its name. Narragansett bay runs up from the sea, nearly in a north and south direction, and encompasses several fertile islands, particularly *Conanicut* and *Prudence*, both of which suffered considerably by the depredations of the American war.

MOUNTAINS. The only remarkable eminence in this state is Mount Hope, within the precincts of the town of Bristol, which was once the royal seat of King Philip, and the place where he was killed, after having waged a destructive war for many years, against the early settlers of New England.

VEGETABLE, ANIMAL AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. Besides the crops of common grain, such as wheat, rye, and Indian corn, of which this state produces sufficient for home consumption, it is distinguished for its rich meadows, and productive orchards ; its large cattle, and excellent dairies, and its cyder, superior to most that is made in the United States. There is a part of the state remarkable also, for breeding a race of fleet pacing horses, as valuable for their speed, as for their hardiness in enduring the fatigues of a long journey.

CONNECTICUT.

EXTENT AND SITUATION. THIS State extends from 41° to $42^{\circ} 2'$ of N. latitude, and from $1^{\circ} 50'$, to $3^{\circ} 25'$ of E. longitude from Philadelphia, or from $71^{\circ} 30'$ to $73^{\circ} 15'$, W. from London, being bounded on the north by Massachusetts ; on the east by Rhode Island ; on the south by the sound which separates it from Long Island ; and on the west by the state of New York. It contains about 4674 square miles, equal to about 2,960,000 acres.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. This territory, the ancient patrimony of savage tribes among which those of the Pequod nation were the most powerful, appears to have been first planted by the Hollanders, and was claimed by them as long as they held Manhattan, or New York. Before the arrival of the English, a company of Dutch traders landed, and built a small fort at Hartford, which they fortified with two cannon, but they were soon expelled by a party of emigrants from Massachusetts and Plymouth.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. Connecticut river entered, a settlement formed, and a fort built by the Dutch at the place now called Hartford, sometime before 1633.

In 1633. Claimed by Massachusetts—possession taken by force, and a trading house built at Windsor.

In 1635. Another settlement made at Wethersfield, by a small colony from England which was highly resented by the Windsorians as an encroachment.

In 1636. The colony is increased by Mr. Hooker and his followers from Massachusetts. The permission for removal granted on condition of their still continuing under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, although the country was confessedly without the limits of that colony, the general court contending that an oath of allegiance to the commonwealth was still binding, although a person removed from its territory.

In 1637. New Haven settled by a colony from England, led by Eaton and Davenport, under a separate jurisdiction :

this little community made the sacred scripture the ground work of their civil and religious ordinances.

In this year broke out a war with the Pequods, a powerful tribe of Indians, seated on Connecticut river, which ended the same year with the almost total destruction of the tribe. The men of Connecticut attacked an Indian town at the head of Mystic river, that was surrounded with a Pallisado. The wigwams were fired during the engagement, many perished in the flames, and those who attempted to escape over the wall were shot by the English and Indian allies. Of the prisoners, "about 30 men were turned into Charon's ferry boat, under the command of Skipper Gallop," says Parson Hubbard; of the women and children some were sold as slaves, and others given to the Indian confederates.

In 1643. An union of the four New England colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Haven.

In 1663. Charter granted by King Charles II. to the colony of Connecticut, which included the territories claimed by New Haven: contest took place between the two colonies in consequence; but was soon terminated by an union of both under one government.

In 1704. Pass a law to banish Quakers, and to forbid all persons to read their books: repealed by the Queen.

In 1713. The boundary line between Massachusetts and Connecticut adjusted to mutual satisfaction.

On complaints presented to the King, against various disorders which had taken place in New England, he resolved to resume their charters: a writ of quo warranto was granted against Connecticut among the rest: while the King's commissioner and the assembly were debating on the subject, the charter was secreted and conveyed away; and by this means it was preserved. After the revolution in England the charter was confirmed by William and Mary.

In 1731. The division between New York and Connecticut finally settled; by which the latter ceded 60,000 acres called Oblong, in exchange for Greenwich which was more convenient, being on the sound.

1753. The government of Connecticut claimed a large tract of land on the Susquehanna, within the limits of Pennsylvania.

1754. Connecticut company purchase a piece of land of the Six Nations, at Wyoming in Pennsylvania.

A county formed, and courts established in Pennsylvania, under the authority of Connecticut.

1762. Settlements made in Pennsylvania on Connecticut titles.

1776. Four delegates nominated to attend the general Congress at Philadelphia, June 3, 1774.

1782. The dispute with Pennsylvania submitted to Congress, and determined by a committee against Connecticut, they reporting that all the lands in dispute lie within the boundary of Pennsylvania. But as the settlers on the Connecticut titles claimed the right of the soil, they refused to remove, and the dispute remains unsettled.

1786. The state of Connecticut still claimed lands west of Pennsylvania, within their northern and southern limits, but made a cession of the whole to Congress, with a reserve of about half a million of acres which has been disposed of for the benefit of the state.

Federal Constitution ratified January 9, 1788, by a majority of 128 to 40.

RELIGION. The religious establishment very similar to that of Massachusetts. The Congregationalists the most numerous, and next to these the Episcopalians. The state is divided into parishes which are all incorporated, and choose their own ministers to whose maintenance all the inhabitants are obliged to contribute.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The royal charter granted by King Charles II. is the basis of the existing constitution of this state, which is a tacit confession that it is well adapted to the temper and wants of the people, and that they had lived happily under it, before the revolution. By this constitution the executive power is lodged in a governor who is chosen annually by the people, but his power is very limited: the principal officers of the government are either appointed by the general court, or elected by the people, and they receive their commissions only from the governor. He presides in the chamber of assistants and has a casting vote, when there is an equality.—The legislature is divided into two branches; consisting of twelve assistants called the council, chosen annually, and a house of representatives, or deputies, elected semi-annu-

ally by the several towns. They meet twice a year, at Hartford and New Haven alternately. Each house has a negative on the other, but this has very rarely interrupted the procedure of public business.

All the towns are incorporated, and elect their own municipal officers annually ; among these are the select men, who are a very useful body, being designed to superintend and regulate the manners of the people.

All the qualifications required in an elector, or the highest officer, are a residence in the state, full age, and an estate in freehold worth seven dollars per annum, or any other property to the value of 134 dollars. A very slight security against the designs of corrupt, or the mistakes of ignorant men !

The laws are administered by a cheap and well organised judiciary, which consists of a superior court that presides over the whole state ; county courts for the trial of causes not exceeding seventy dollars ; and justices of the peace who hear and decide all cases, civil and criminal, when the demand is not above seven dollars. But in case of appeal from the Supreme court, causes of importance may be retried in a court of Errors which is held yearly at the seat of government.

CIVIL DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The state is divided into eight counties, and those again are subdivided into 111 townships, containing about 252,000 inhabitants, of whom nearly 1000 are slaves. The population is 54 persons to a square mile. Of these 111,308 are under 16 years, and 133,413 above 16 years of age. This state though the most populous in the union increased more in the last 16 years before the revolution, than it has in any twenty years since.—The militia is well disciplined, and consists of thirty five regiments.

LANGUAGE, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The New England states, having the same origin, and being planted about the same time, except Vermont, resemble one another in their language, manners and customs. The same mode of settlement in small townships, with a market town or village in the centre, is observable in them all, as well as the numerous small towns scattered in every direction which naturally grew out of such an arrangement.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. In no part of the union is education on a better footing than in this state,

early provision having been made by the government for this very important purpose. The schools for a common English education are very numerous, as every town or village of a certain size, is obliged to support a school master, to teach the children reading, writing and accounts, and the tutors in general are persons of irreproachable moral characters. A subject which has been too much neglected in the middle and southern states.

There are many academies and grammar schools for teaching the higher branches of learning, some of them supported by a public tax, and others by private contributions. The principal are those at Plainfield, Colchester, New Haven, and Litchfield. Yale college at New Haven, is the principal seminary in the state; it was founded in 1700. The present edifice which is of brick was built in 1750, being 100 feet wide, 40 feet deep, three stories high and containing 32 rooms, a chapel and museum. It is furnished with a very complete philosophical apparatus and a library of 2500 volumes. It is well endowed and has commonly from 150 to 250 students of various grades.

CHIEF TOWNS. The principal towns of Connecticut, are Hartford, New Haven, New London, Norwich, and Middleton; these are incorporated, and their internal concerns are governed by a mayor and aldermen. Hartford, (which is the seat of government interchangeably with New Haven) is situated on the Connecticut river, about 40 miles from the sea, and contained at the last enumeration 5347 inhabitants. There are 300 dwelling houses, six places of public worship, three of which belong to the Congregationalists, and a state or court house: it is a thriving commercial and manufacturing town. New Haven lies at the head of a small bay that makes up from the sound: in 1800 it had 500 houses principally wooden buildings, but neat and commodious, and 5157 inhabitants. In the centre of the city is a public square round which are erected for the principal part of the public buildings, viz. state house, college, chapel, and three or four places of public worship; round the square, and in many of the streets, trees are planted, which add much to the beauty and rural appearance of this little metropolis. It must be a very healthy situation as only about one in 70 of the inhabitants die annually.

New London stands on the river Thames, formerly the Pequod river, a name derived from a powerful tribe of

Indians who formerly lived on its banks. This tribe is extinct, between three or four hundred having been destroyed by the white inhabitants by fire and sword in one engagement: the town has about 5000 inhabitants. Norwich is at the head of the river Thames, about 14 miles above New London, and contains about 3500 inhabitants; and Middletown on the river Connecticut, has about 5000. The other towns and villages in Connecticut are less considerable, though pretty numerous, and generally consists of neat wooden buildings.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. Although the farmers of Connecticut make both linen and woollen cloths for the use of their families, the inhabitants of the cities and towns are cloathed principally with foreign manufactures. But they manufacture considerable quantities of bar iron, nails and nail-rods, cannon, anchors and hollow ware, paper, powder, and wool cards. The country is famous also for wooden wares, such as bowls, dishes, &c. and for large dairies of excellent cheese, some of it superior to what is made in any other state.

The principal external trade of Connecticut is maintained with its sister states, and with none so largely as with New York. It has nevertheless a foreign trade with the West Indies and some few vessels that sail to the East Indies and the Mediterranean. The chief articles exported are beef, pork, and live stock, butter, cheese, onions, potatoes, flaxseed, and pot and pearl ashes. The value of exports in 1802, was ,1606,809 dollars, and the amount of shipping 32,867 tons. The greatest part of the supplies of foreign goods comes through the channel of New York.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The climate and seasons of Connecticut differ not much from those of Massachusetts. As it has a considerable extent of sea coast, the variations of the weather are rendered more frequent thereby. In general this state enjoys a clear and salubrious air; many of the inhabitants live to a good old age, one in thirteen to the age of 80, and one in thirty to the age of 90. The longest day is 15 hours, and the shortest 8 hours 58 minutes. As the face of Connecticut is broken by numerous hills and mountains it abounds in streams of water; the land is various, some thin and barren, but much of it strong and fertile, well adapted to grazing and

dairies, for which this state is famous. The principal productions are Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, flax, turnips, potatoes, peas, beans, and fruits of various sorts ; numerous droves of neat cattle and horses are driven from this country annually : and many horses, mules, and asses are exported yearly to the West Indies, from the port of New London.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS. Although Connecticut has many hills and small mountains, there are none very large or worthy of particular delineation.—The principal river is the Connecticut, from which the state has borrowed its name. This stream has its head springs in the high lands that divide Lower Canada and New Hampshire, and after passing through the state near 300 miles in a southerly direction, discharges itself into the sound near Saybrook. The Housatonic rises from two branches in the county of Berkshire, Massachusetts, and passing through a well settled country in a course of 100 miles, unites with the sound between Stratford and Milford. The Pequod or Thames is navigable as high as Norwich, which is about 14 miles from the sound ; it forms the excellent harbour of New London.

The vegetable and animal productions of Connecticut are very similar to those of Massachusetts, already described.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES. The revenues of this state are managed with great economy : they arise principally from a capitation tax, and assessments on real and personal estates, which were estimated at 5,112,893 dollars in the year 1787 : since that period the value must have increased much. The expences of the government or civil list were 9767 dollars in the year 1803, including the salaries of the governor, lieutenant-governor, chief justice, and five assistant judges ; the treasurer, comptroller, council, and secretary of state. If the compensation of the other officers, omitted, amount to as much more, the whole will be 19,534 dollars. Before the revolution the whole expenditure amounted to 4000*l.* sterling, which is equal to 17,778 dollars, or about seven cents per head on the existing population.

NEW YORK.

EXTENT AND SITUATION. THIS state lies between $40^{\circ} 40'$ and 45° N. latitude, and between 5° W. and $1^{\circ} 30'$ E. longitude from Philadelphia, or between 73° and 80° W. from London; being bounded by Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont on the east; on the south-east by the Atlantic ocean; on the north by Canada; on the north-west by the river St. Lawrence and the lakes Ontario and Erie; and on the south and south-west by New Jersey and Pennsylvania. It contains 44,000 square miles, equal to 28,160,000 acres.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. Great part of the territory of this state was the ancient inheritance of the Iroquois or Five Nations, and a few other inferior tribes who dwelt nearer to the bay and Long Island sound. There are a few families of the Five Nations, still surviving, and there is therefore a small portion of the soil which they have not yet alienated. The first European settlers were Hollanders, who purchased the maps, charts, and other papers of Capt. Hudson, who, in the year 1608, had explored the coast and sailed up the North river as far as Albany, calling it Hudson's river, after his own name.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. In 1614 the Dutch built a fort near Albany which they called Fort Orange, and the States General granted a charter to the West India company for an exclusive trade up the North river.

In the same year, they are summoned by captain Argall, under a commission from the governor of Virginia, to surrender the government to the king of Great Britain. Unable to make any effectual resistance, they prudently submit; but being reinforced the next year, they revolted and built a fort at the point of Manhattan, now York Island, and thereby laid the foundation of the city of New York, naming it New Amsterdam, after the metropolis of the Dutch confederacy in Europe.

In 1621, the sovereignty of the country was granted by the States General to the West India company.

The Dutch possessed it till 1664, when it was surrendered to the English, and was confirmed to them by the ensuing treaty of peace in 1667, in exchange for Surinam in South America.

In 1673, the Hollanders recovered possession of the country by the treachery of the English commander, but after they had held it about eight months, it reverted once more to the English, was confirmed by the treaty of Westminster, and continued under their government till the American revolution.

From 1664 to 1683, the sovereignty was vested in the duke of York (afterwards king James II.) and all the governors received their commissions from him.

The people being dissatisfied with the administration of col. Dougan, one Jacob Leisler, a popular character among them, seized the government for king William and queen Mary, in 1689.

In 1690, the French from Canada, aided by a body of savages, made a sudden incursion into the province, and penetrated as far as Skenectady; where they found the inhabitants in their beds, and butchered them with the most wanton cruelty, spreading terror and devastation to the gates of Albany. They then returned to their own territory loaded with plunder. This expedition was marked with that savage ferocity which has always disgraced the Gallic arms, from the days of Brennus to those of Bonaparte.

Under the administration of colonel Fletcher, in 1693, a tax was imposed for the building of churches and the maintenance of episcopal ministers, which caused general dissatisfaction among the dissenters; although themselves had set the example in Massachusetts, and persisted in it with undeviating rigour.

In 1700, a law was enacted against popish priests and jesuits, to prevent their exercising the ministerial functions in the province, under the penalty of perpetual imprisonment. This law, though never enforced, remained unrepealed till the American revolution.

In 1710, about 3000 Palatines, who had fled to England from domestic persecution, were transported to New York;

many of whom settled about the country afterwards called the German flats.

In 1720, a law was passed to prevent the sale of Indian goods to the French of Canada, which, though a just and politic measure, caused great dissatisfaction among the merchants, a class of men always distinguished, more or less, for a sordid attachment to private interest.

This act was repealed in 1729, and the effects were speedily evinced, by the rapid advancement of the French commerce at Niagara, and a proportionate decline in the English trading houses at Oswego.

In 1763, a dispute originated between New York and New Hampshire, respecting the territory now called Vermont, and then denominated the New Hampshire grants.

In 1764, Vermont was divided into counties, and large tracts sold by the government of New York: opposed by other grants from New Hampshire. This gave rise to a long series of confusion and riots.

In 1774, New York passed a law declaring it felony in the intruders, to oppose the government by force.

Four delegates from the city and part of the province are appointed to meet the general congress at Philadelphia, in 1774.

State constitution framed April 20, 1777, revised in 1801, but no considerable alterations made.

Federal constitution ratified July 25, 1788, by a majority of 30 to 25.

RELIGION. The religious societies in this state are very numerous, there being an universal toleration. Ministers of every denomination are maintained by themselves, or by their own people, principally by voluntary contributions and pew money. By a special act of the state each society is or may be incorporated, and may appoint officers to manage the secular concerns of the community. The episcopal church in New York, and several Dutch churches in different parts of the commonwealth, possess considerable estates: but the Calvinistic sects are much the most numerous. The English Presbyterians and Dutch Reformed churches embrace two thirds of the inhabitants of this central and populous state.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected triennially by citizens who possess freeholds worth 100*l.* currency, clear of in-

cumbrances, and can prove a residence in their several districts, six months prior to the time of election. He is authorized to grant pardons for all offences except murder and treason, in which cases he may respite punishment until the next session of assembly. As president of the council of revision, he may, with their consent, negative bills, unless two thirds of both houses of legislature, on revision, resolve to enact; he presides also in the council of appointment, where he has a casting vote.—There is a lieutenant-governor who is chosen at the same time, and by the same electors as the governor. In case of vacancy, this officer acts as governor, and he is always president of the senate.—The council of revision consists of the governor, the chancellor, and the chief justice of the state for the time being.—The council of appointment are chosen by the assembly from the senate or upper house, annually, and cannot serve two years successively.

The legislature consists of two branches, viz. The *Assembly* or lower house which has 70 members, and is elected once a year; and the *Senate*, consisting of 24 members who are elected quadrennially, with an annual rotation of one fourth.—None but freeholders are eligible to the Senate; as to the qualifications of the members of assembly the constitution is silent.—In the choice of Senators, none but freeholders worth 100*l.* are entitled to vote, but in the election of assembly, every man who has resided six months, paid taxes, and a rent of 40*s.* per annum, possesses the right of suffrage.—The statute and common law of England are declared to be the law of the state.—Clergymen are universally exempted from office.

The judges are appointed by the governor and council of appointment, and hold their offices during good behaviour, until the age of sixty when the constitution requires them to resign.—The highest court is composed of the Senate, the chancellor, and the chief judge, who are empowered to try impeachments, and to correct the errors of inferior tribunals. There is also a court of equity in which the chancellor presides; a supreme court which rotates between New York and Albany; and county courts held in every county of the commonwealth, for the administration of justice in common cases.—This state sends two Senators, and seventeen Representatives to Congress. Senators are appointed by a *concurrent* vote of both houses;

if they disagree, by a *joint* ballot. Representatives by a plurality of the people in districts.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The commonwealth of New York is divided into 32 counties, and 280 townships, which in 1800 possessed a population of 586,000 persons, of whom 20,000 were slaves. This on a surface of 44,000 square miles, is about 13 persons to every mile. Since the close of the American war this state has increased amazingly, owing to an extraordinary emigration from Europe and the eastern states. Between that period and the year 1800 the number of inhabitants was doubled. One half of the population is under 16 years of age, and the males exceed the females of all ages by almost 10,000. The militia of the state in the year 1800 was 64,000 infantry, besides cavalry and artillery.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES. The confiscation of the estates of the numerous and wealthy loyalists in the state of New York threw a large sum of money into the public treasury. By economical management of this and other means, this member of the union is comparatively rich. In the year 1795, they possessed stock in the various funds of the general government, to the value of 2,000,000 dollars, besides near 350,000 dollars in their own treasury, and numerous shares in the several banks, canals, &c. The annual produce of this capital renders the taxes on the people very light, and enables the state to patronise all laudable public undertakings. In 1791 the expenses of the city and county of New York was 26,000 dollars, which might be about one fourth of the annual expenses of the state. They are probably higher at present.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. The English language is perhaps more corrupted in the state of New York than any other, by a foreign accent and idioms, though this unfavourable distinction is wearing off every year, by the increase of English schools, and the happy extinction of national prejudice. Still there are settlements within a few miles of the city of New York, where the English language is never spoken, except by travellers passing through them. Many of the descendants of the original Dutch inhabitants retain not only the language, but the manners, the customs, and the character of their plodding ancestors, and are habitually shy of mingling with their English neighbours. But these *mynheers* constitute a

small part of the population; the great majority are English, Scotch, and Irish, and their descendants, and are generally an enlightened and hospitable people, well instructed in the useful and elegant improvements of polished society, and busily engaged in the pursuits of commerce, agriculture, and the mechanic professions.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. The government of this state has manifested great attention to the dissemination of useful knowledge among its citizens. Soon after the close of the American war, the legislature instituted a literary society, under the title of Regents, with full power to superintend all the colleges, academies, and other schools through the state; to establish new seminaries, wherever they thought proper, and to confer literary degrees. In the year 1795 the legislature likewise appropriated a considerable sum of money to build school-houses, and to pay teachers in those parts of the country, where the inhabitants were too poor to make the necessary provisions.—The first in rank of public seminaries, is Columbia college in the city of New York. It was founded in the year 1754, under the appellation of King's College, received a royal charter, and was very liberally endowed by private contributions, and grants by the provincial assembly.—The faculty consists of a president, and professors of the sciences and learned languages.—The building is of stone, three stories high, with twelve apartments in each, a chapel, hall, library and museum. It is pleasantly situated on the bank of Hudson river, commanding a very extensive prospect.—There is also an academy at Flat-bush and another at East Hampton on Long Island; and grammar schools in the city of New York, at Albany, Kingston, Goshen, Skenectady, and some other places. So that although Smith “might have some occasion formerly, to observe that the schools were in the lowest order, and the instructors wanted instruction,” an ambition for literary improvement is certainly very prevalent and extensive at the present more enlightened period.

CHIEF TOWNS. In the state of New York there are many flourishing towns. The three principal, which are incorporated and called cities, are New York, Albany, and Hudson: all of them situated on the Hudson or North River. The city of *New York* was founded by the Dutch about the year 1614, and was then called New Amsterdam.

It is happily situated for trade, at the confluence of the North and East rivers, extending from shore to shore, and containing about 60,000 inhabitants, the county included. The streets are narrow and irregular, excepting Broadway, Wall street, and two or three more. The private houses are mostly built with brick, at least in the fronts, and covered with tiles: but the partition walls in many old parts of the city are a kind of frame work, filled in with brick, and of course the more liable to dreadful conflagrations. This city narrowly escaped universal destruction when it was taken by the British in 1776. Certain incendiaries filled a great number of the houses with combustible matter, and set them on fire. The blaze was not extinguished till it had consumed a fourth part of the city; and had it not been for the exertion of the British army, a much greater part would have been laid in ashes. The principal buildings are the city hall, once the seat of congress, now appropriated to the service of the state legislature, and to courts of justice; the government house, the tontine coffee-house, the theatre, the jail, twenty-seven houses of religious worship, some of them large and splendid, and the state prison, distant about two miles from the city.—The next in rank is Albany, which is on the North river, about 160 miles above New York. This city is nearly as ancient as New York, being one of the earliest posts established by the Hollanders. It was incorporated by governor Dougan in 1686. The inhabitants in 1800 were 6200; and it has lately been preferred as the seat of government, on account of its central and safe situation.

The inhabitants are a motley mixture of many nations, but principally Hollanders and their descendants, who are said to be deeply tinged with the Dutch character. The houses are mostly built on the margin of the river, in the old Dutch style with the gable end to the streets. The water in the wells of the city is unwholesome; the inhabitants, therefore, make use of that from the river. The principal public buildings are a city hall, a hospital, and three or four places of religious worship. The city is well situated for trade, being the staple of the produce of an extensive and flourishing country, and will probably become a place of great importance. The only other remarkable town we shall notice is *Hudson*, built on the same river, about thirty miles below Albany, which has been distin-

guished as one of the most thriving towns in the United States. From the year 1784, when the first house was erected to the year 1800, the inhabitants had increased to 3664. The river is nearly a mile wide opposite the town, and navigable for the largest merchant vessels. The advantageous situation, joined to a spirit of industry and enterprise in the inhabitants, has already rendered the town of Hudson a formidable rival of Albany.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The commerce of New York is decidedly the greatest of all the states in the union, but this is partly owing to a great portion of the import and export trade of Connecticut, Vermont, and New Jersey centering here: otherwise in neither respect would it equal Pennsylvania. Her exports, in 1802, amounted to 13,792,276 dollars. This was a spring tide. Four years before they were but 2,535,790 dollars, which is but a trifle more than they were four years prior to the American revolution. Her principal exports of native produce are salt provisions, flour, flaxseed, butter, cheese, pot and pearl ashes.—The manufactures of the state are confined chiefly to articles of home consumption, such as wheel carriages, loaf sugar, shoes, boots, saddles, hats, clocks, watches, and other articles of common use.—The banks of discount and deposit are sufficiently numerous, though fewer in proportion to her trade than those of some of the towns in New England. There are four at New York, and six insurance offices; one bank at Albany, and another at Troy.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The northern part of this state that lies along lake Champlain resembles Vermont in its climate and seasons, having long and cold winters; this part is but thinly settled. A very considerable portion that lies on the west of the Alleghany mountains, and between them and the lakes is exceedingly temperate, and comprehends a rich country that is filling daily with an industrious yeomanry. The old settled parts that border on the Hudson, the East river, and the Sound, are middling healthful, but subject to frequent and sudden changes of atmosphere. Although the rivers are very seldom frozen over opposite the city of New York, owing to the vicinity of the ocean, they are frequently filled with large bodies of floating ice sufficient to interrupt navigation.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. In a state extended through five degrees of latitude, with an extensive seashore, and intersected with lakes and mountains, the soil and cultivation must be diversified; a part is light and sandy, but the greatest part is land proper for grass or grain: the western counties contain a strong and rich soil, and produce luxuriant crops of the staple article of wheat. The intervalles among the high lands bordering on the Hudson river contain many excellent dairies and grazing farms. Although a considerable part of Long Island is a sterile sand, it has been rendered very productive by the plodding industry of its inhabitants.

RIVERS, BAYS, LAKES, AND ISLANDS. The streams of New York are numerous and most of them navigable: besides the Hudson or North river which rises in the mountains of Canada, and after running a course of 250 miles through the whole length of the state, discharges itself into the York bay; there is another considerable river called the Mohawk river, which springs in the N. W. part of the state, and after a course of 110 miles, through a fertile country, pours its tributary water into the Hudson a few miles above Albany. Besides these there are Back River, Oswego, and Genessee rivers, that pursue an opposite course and unite with lake Ontario.—The principal bays are York bay, which spreads up to the city of New-York, is formed by the waters of the East and North rivers, and passes into the ocean at a strait called the *Narrows*. South bay is at the head of lake Champlain, uniting with lake George, at or near Ticonderago.—There are five or six lakes within the territories of New York, but none of them large; the most extended is lake Oneida, about 25 miles in length; but perhaps the most beneficial is Salt lake, near the western confines of the state, which furnishes all the circumjacent country with this indispensable article.—The only islands under the jurisdiction of this state, that are worthy of notice, are York Island, Long Island, and Staten Island.—The first of these is joined to the main land by Kings Bridge, and on the point of it is built the city of New York. The island is about fifteen miles long and hardly a mile wide, but the whole of it is in the highest state of cultivation. Long Island is separated from the continent by the Sound and the East river, extending in length from Montock (its most east-

ern) point to the Narrows, about 140 miles, with a medial breadth of 10 miles. It contains three counties and several handsome villages. The whole is in an advanced state of improvement, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants. On this island is an extensive plain, called Hampstead, which is 15 miles long by seven or eight wide, and is appropriated as common for horses, sheep, and cattle. It is also famous for being the scene of the first field battle fought between the American army under general Washington, and the British army under general Sir W. Howe. Here the illustrious American first learnt the danger of opposing his undisciplined troops to the veteran bands of Great Britain, as well as the facility of escaping from his enemy when he was beaten. Here he also discovered, that his antagonist, though able to conquer, was too indolent, or otherwise indisposed to improve his victory: otherwise it is not improbable that this first engagement in the field would have been the last between the two armies.— Staten Island, which lies to the south-west of New-York, close on the shore of New Jersey, is comparatively small, being only 13 miles long, and about 7 miles broad, containing about 4,500 inhabitants, who are principally descended from Dutch and French ancestors.

MOUNTAINS. Along the banks of the North river, as high up as the town of Hudson, the land is broken with numerous hills and mountains, particularly a romantic tract of 16 miles called the High-lands, though none of them very elevated. But beyond the Alleghany mountains, a part of which passes through the state nearly north and south, the country exhibits a rich and extended level of excellent land. The highest ridge in the state is called Katts Kill, a name derived from the ancient Dutch colonists, and lies principally in Green county.

VEGETABLE, ANIMAL, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. The indigenous vegetables and animals of this state differ but little from those of New England. The staple produce of the improved land is wheat, which is cultivated with great success, particularly in the new counties; of this article near a million of bushels have been exported in one year, besides the shipments of bread and flour. The crops also of barley, rye, peas, oats and Indian corn, not only supply the home consumption, but large quantities of most of them for exportation. Besides all the common

domestic animals, the northern parts of New York which remain in their natural state are still tenanted by their aboriginal quadrupeds: bears, foxes, martins, several species of deer, and a few beavers, still afford employment for the hardy sons of Nimrod. Nor is this state deficient in mineral riches, though iron is the principal ore, as indeed it is the most useful, that has hitherto been manufactured. The mineral waters of Saratoga are well known throughout the union for their many medicinal qualities, and the resort of numerous visitors, for health or for pleasure.

NEW JERSEY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION. NEW JERSEY is bounded on the east by the Atlantic ocean, which washes its eastern shore from 39° to $40^{\circ} 30'$ of N. latitude; on the north by the bay and state of New York; on the west by the river Delaware; and on the south by Delaware bay and the ocean. It contains about 8300 square miles, or little more than 5,000,000 of acres, and is situated between 39° and $41^{\circ} 24'$ N. latitude, and between the meridian of Philadelphia and 1° E. longitude, or between 75° and 76° W. from London.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The Indigenal tribes that roamed the woods and fished in the waters of New Jersey were probably once very numerous; being invited thither by the convenience of fishing in its rivers and its various inlets from the sea. The most noted were the Mantaws, or Frog Indians who planted their wigwams about the place now called Burlington, the Narriticongs seated on the river Rariton, the Capibingasses, the Gacheos, Delawares, Pomptons and Munseys. These clans are all extinct, or have removed and are blended with distant Indian nations. The first European settlers were the Dutch, who included the Jerseys within the limits of what they called New Netherlands, in or about the year 1614.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1623. The Dutch built a fort near Gloucester, on the river Delaware, calling it South river: and they taught the Indians the use of fire arms, that they might assist them in expelling the English.

1627. The Swedes sailed up the Delaware, and purchased of the natives all the land on both sides of the river, from the Capes to the falls: calling the river New-Swede-land stream.

1630. The Dutch built a fort at Lewis-town, then called Hoer-kill.

1631. The Swedes built a fort at the mouth of Christianna creek, near Wilmington, and others at Tinicum Island, Chester in Pennsylvania, and at Elsinburgh near Salem in New Jersey.

1654. John Risingh the Swedish governor took fort Casimir, now New Castle, from the Dutch, alledging that it was built on the Swedish territory.

1655. The Dutch came with a considerable force (of six or seven vessels) and compelled the Swedes to deliver up all their forts on both sides of the Delaware: and the country remained under the dominion of the Hollanders till,

1664. When King Charles granted to his brother James Duke of York an extensive tract of land in North America which included all the Dutch plantations; and in the same year sent a strong force to take possession.

1664. New Netherlands divided into two parts, viz. New York and New Jersey; the latter being conveyed by the Duke of York to Lord Berkley and Sir Geo. Carteret.

1674. The title to soil and government confirmed to the English by the treaty of Westminster.

1676. The province divided into East and West Jersey: Lord Berkley sold West Jersey to the Friends.

1702. The proprietors surrender the government of the province to the crown, it having been under a proprietary government to this time from the year 1674.

Five delegates appointed to meet the general Congress at Philadelphia July 23, 1774.

State Constitution framed July 2, 1776.

Federal Constitution ratified Dec. 19, 1787. N. C.

RELIGION. All religions are tolerated, but none are admitted to offices except Protestants. The most nu-

merous sects are the Friends and Presbyterians: the former in West, and the latter in East Jersey. But the Episcopalians, Methodists, and Baptists, compose many very respectable congregations. All partake equally in the civil rights and immunities of the state; to elect, or be elected, if they possess the legal qualifications.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The legislature of this state consists of two branches; viz. a legislative Council, composed of 13 members, and an Assembly of 39 members; both chosen annually by the people.—A member of the council must possess an estate worth 1000*l.* and a member of assembly, 500*l.* currency. A residence of one year in the county, where elected, is a qualification necessary in both.—The assembly has the sole right of originating money bills; in all other respects the powers of the two branches are equi-pollent.—The executive authority is vested in a governor, who is elected annually by a joint vote of council and assembly. His qualifications are not defined by the constitution. He is always president of the legislative council, and has a casting vote in that body. He acts as chancellor and ordinary, and with the assistance of seven members of the legislative council, he may hold a court of appeals in civil cases, in which court he presides. His power of pardoning criminals extends to all offences; but he commonly acts with the advice of his privy council, which consists of three members selected from the legislative council.—The council and assembly appoint all the judges, except those of the high court of errors and appeals already mentioned.—The judges of the supreme court are appointed for seven years, those of inferior judges for five years; but they are all removable by impeachment before the legislative council.—Justices courts are held frequently for trial of causes under 12*l.*—Courts of common pleas and quarter sessions are held quarterly in every county; and a supreme court, whose authority extends over the state, is held four times in the year.—All free men and *free women*, who are of full age, worth 50*l.* and have resided in the state one year before the election, are entitled to the right of suffrage. This privilege, if exercised by the ladies with all their fascinating arts, might produce some evil consequences to the state; but if it excite only one angry passion in the mind or imprint one premature wrinkle on the face of a fair daughter of New Jersey, these are evils sufficient to con-

sign it to everlasting disuse.—The common and statute laws of England are adopted, except when they interfere with the constitution, or some special law of the state.—The delegation to Congress consists of two Senators and six Representatives. The former are appointed by a joint vote of the two houses, sometimes by ballot, at others, *viva voce*; and the latter are elected by a plurality of the people.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The state is divided into thirteen counties, seven of which lie on the west side along the river Delaware, four on the east, and two that are called inland. These are subdivided into 94 townships, containing 2,032,587 acres of improved land. The population in 1800 was 211,149 persons (of whom 12,422 were slaves,) being about $25\frac{1}{3}$ to a square mile, of the superficies of the state. The increase in ten years, just preceding 1800, was 27,000, which is very trifling when compared with the growth of the colony, prior to the revolution. White males 98,725, females 95,600. Under 16 years 97,288; above 16 years 97,037. Of 45 years and upwards 11,600. The militia of the state is about 20,000 men. This corps acquired much praise for their activity during some part of the American war.

REVENUES AND EXPENSES. The revenues of the state arise from an equal tax on all real and personal property, which amounts to about 150,000 dollars per annum; but the greatest part of this sum is applied to discharge the interest of the debts contracted during the war. The ordinary expenses of the government are about 27,000 dollars per annum, which is equal to the eighth of a dollar per head in a capitation tax.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. The language is English, the present inhabitants being principally descended from English progenitors; but it is a little corrupted in the northern part of the state by a Dutch accent and idioms, owing partly to this part being first settled by Hollanders, and partly to a frequent intercourse with New York. But on the whole the language is perhaps as pure as that of any other state. The same may be said with respect to manners and customs. The shades that originally distinguished the first settlers are still to be traced by nice observation in some of their descendants.—Having no

sea port town the great bulk of the inhabitants are farmers, and they are generally an industrious, shrewd, neat, and hospitable people.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. The inhabitants of New Jersey have never been distinguished for their zeal in the cause of literature. They have but few seminaries entitled to a particular notice. The college at Princeton, called Nassau Hall, which was founded in the year 1738, has an income of about 2400 dollars per annum, and graduates about 40 students at its annual commencement; Queen's College at Brunswick, of secondary rank, was founded and incorporated some time before the American war. Both these institutions are in a flourishing state. They have also three or four academies, and perhaps as many grammar schools, established in the other principal towns. The college at Princeton has been unfortunate: it was plundered in the American war by the marauders of the British army, and it was more recently burnt to the ground, as was suspected, by one of its own pupils.

CHIEF TOWNS. The principal town and the seat of government is Trenton, situated on the east bank of the river Delaware, about 30 miles above Philadelphia, at the head of the tide. The inhabitants are about two thousand, and the dwelling houses about two hundred. The only public building that deserves notice is a court house about 100 feet front, by 50 feet deep. This town is distinguished by being the scene of two of General Washington's most important and brilliant actions, during the revolutionary war. In the first he captured a British post, held by a detachment of 900 Hessian troops, and made the whole of them prisoners, on the 26th of Dec. 1776. Till this day he had been obliged to fly before a conquering enemy; the Americans were disheartened; and his whole army was reduced to about 2000 men. The second occurred about four days afterwards, when he escaped from a superior army of the enemy, by a bold and masterly manoeuvre in the night. Had he remained in his situation till the morning, his whole army and himself would have been either slain, or made prisoners.—The next in rank is Brunswick, distant about 35 miles from New York, near the river Rariton, over which is constructed one of the handsomest wooden bridges in the United States. It contains about 2000 inhabitants, a moiety of whom are

descended from Dutch families.—Burlington on the Delaware, is 20 miles above Philadelphia, and was for many years the seat of government. This is a very ancient town, being founded in the year 1677, and was then called New Beverly; but has increased slowly, its present population not exceeding 15 or 16 hundred souls.—Amboy, designed by nature for a sea port, has an excellent harbour that lies open to Sandy Hook, and may be approached with any wind. Some feeble efforts have been made to introduce commerce into this capital of East Jersey, but have always failed. At the end of the American war, a large body of loyalists applied to the state for permission to settle in Amboy, but their petition was rejected. Most of them were commercial men, of great enterprize and capital, and, had their prayer been granted, would have enriched the city, and soon made it the emporium of an extensive foreign trade.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The manufactures of this state are not very considerable. An attempt was made by a company, incorporated in 1791, to establish a large factory of cotton and linen goods at Patterson, and a large capital was subscribed for the purpose, but it soon ended in loss and disappointment. The farmers make coarse linen and woollen cloths, for the consumption of their families, and there are some tanneries and paper mills, but the principal manufacture is that of bar and pig iron, hollow ware, and other castings. Some parts of the state abound with excellent ore, and plenty of timber. Morris county alone contains between 30 and 40 forges, furnaces, rolling and slitting mills. The wares are spread over the country for the use of the inhabitants, and conveyed to New York and Philadelphia for sale. The export and import trade of this state passes principally through the channels of those two grand staples: there the Jersey farmer finds a ready market and good price for all the produce he has to spare, as well as an easy supply of all he wants.—The numerous stages running between Philadelphia and New York, which pass so great a part of their routes through this state, must introduce a great deal of money, as the accommodations at the inns are extravagantly dear, and American travellers are not the greatest economists. The consumption of foreign spirituous liquors

alone, in the year 1786, was valued at 170,000 dollars, and since that time it has been nearly doubled.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The northern counties of this state, as Hunterdon, Sussex, Morris and Bergen, are a high mountainous country, and experience severe cold in winter, but the southern counties, particularly those which extend along the sea and the bay of Delaware, being less exposed to the bleak northern winds in winter, and being fanned in summer by temperate breezes from the bay and the ocean, approach nearer to an equal temperature throughout the year. The inhabitants of the flat lands near these waters, are subject to stubborn fall fevers, and are infested with innumerable swarms of French flies (commonly called musquetoës) who always cousin people before they draw their blood.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. One-fourth of this state consists of a barren sand, salt marshes on the sea shore, and cedar swamps. These extend in a strip of near twenty miles wide from the Atlantic ocean, and are of inconsiderable value. The other parts are productive of every species of useful grain, fruits and roots; and are celebrated for their melons, their apple and peach orchards, their excellent cyder, superior to French wines, their peach spirits, their cheese, their pork, and their hams equal to those of Westphalia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, BAYS AND ISLANDS. The southern half of this state is a level country, and by the appearance of the soil, seems to have been thrown up by the ocean. Oyster shells have been discovered thirty or forty feet below the surface: the northern parts are mountainous. The high lands of Navesink, which lie on the sea coast in Monmouth county, are reckoned 500 feet above the level of the neighbouring ocean, and are an excellent land mark to the mariner as he approaches the coast. Sussex, Morris, and Bergen are intersected by numerous lofty ridges, which form a part of the Alleghany mountains, and extend across the state from Delaware to Hudson, furnishing the head springs of the Rariton, the Passaic, the Hackensack, the Musconecunk, and many other smaller streams, which pour their tributary waters into the Delaware and the Hudson. These rivers are small and navigable only by small craft from ten to fifteen miles from

their outlets. The principal rivers of the Jersey state are the Cohansey and Morris rivers, in Gloucester county, which empty into Delaware bay, and are navigable by vessels of 100 tons, 15 or 20 miles. The bays are Egg-harbour and Barnegat bays, formed by beaches on the sea shore, and the Rariton and Newark bays, which are more properly the estuaries of the rivers Rariton and Passaic.

MINES. Nature has been bountiful to this state in the distribution of her mineral treasures. The whole range of mountains above mentioned abounds with mines. Besides those of iron already noticed, it would be inexcusable not to mention Schuyler's silver mine, which has been worked with considerable advantage; the copper mine on Second river, in Bergen county, that has yielded even 80 pounds of pure copper in the hundred; Young's and Ogden's mines in Sussex; and Tennyke's, Ritschall's and Van Horne's in Somerset county. All these veins have nearly the same direction along the surface, from N. E. to S. W. and they all sink in the same manner, falling nearly in an obtuse angle towards the east. But most of them have been unproductive hitherto, owing to the high price of labour, in every part of the United States.

PENNSYLVANIA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION. PENNSYLVANIA is situated between $39^{\circ} 43'$ and 42° N. latitude, and $0^{\circ} 20'$ E. and 5° W. longitude from Philadelphia, or between 75° and 80° W. from London: it is bounded on the north by lake Erie and the State of New York; on the east by the river Delaware; on the south by the State of Delaware, and a part of Maryland and Virginia; and on the west by the State of Ohio, and a part of Virginia. It contains about 46,000 square miles, or about 29,000,000 of acres.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. Before the arrival of Europeans, Pennsylvania was the favourite hunting ground

of the Delawares, Shawanese, Susquehannocs, Neshame-nies, Shackamacksons, Minquas or Conestogoes, Minisinks, Nanticokes, and many other barbarous tribes; all of whom were subject to the Iroquois or Five Nations, who exercised a fierce dominion over all their brother savages, from lake Champlain to the borders of Carolina. At present there is hardly a cabin existing within the limits of the state of Pennsylvania, that belongs to any of these ancient lords of the soil.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1623. It appears that the Dutch sailed up the Delaware river, to which they gave the name of *South River*, as early as the year 1623.

1627. The Swedes arrived, and landing at Cape-Inlopen, purchased of the natives the lands on both sides of the river from its mouth to the falls, calling the country New Sweden.

1631. They erected forts near Wilmington, Chester, and on Tinicum island.

1654. The Dutch built Fort Cassimir (now New Castle) and expelled the Swedes from this settlement. Receiving a reinforcement of six or seven vessels, the year following, they reduced all the other Swedish forts.

1664. The Dutch were in their turn obliged to submit to the superior force of the English, under the conduct of sir R. Carr. The country granted by king Charles II. to his brother the duke of York, and annexed by the latter to the government of New York which had likewise submitted to the British arms.

1681. William Penn obtained a charter for Pennsylvania, from king Charles II. Three ships freighted with emigrants, arrived this year in the Delaware, and were received by the natives with unaffected hospitality—by reciprocal justice and benevolence, a foundation was laid of peace and friendship, which lasted for seventy years, without the aid of guns or pallisadoe forts.

1682. William Penn receives a release from the duke of York of his claim to the province, as well as the territories (now the state of Delaware). Arrives at New Castle, publishes his first frame of government, and meets the first provincial assembly at Upland, now Chester. Philadelphia founded and made the seat of government.

1684. He returns to England, and leaves the executive authority with a president and provincial council.

1691. The territories, or lower counties, secede from the provincial government, and obtain a separate governor.

1693. William Penn is deprived of the government of Pennsylvania, and it is annexed to that of New York, under governor Fletcher. In the following year it is restored to the proprietor.

1699. William Penn arrives in the colony a second time. The yellow fever, introduced by a vessel from the West Indies, rages with great mortality in Philadelphia.

1701. The assembly refuse to grant a small sum required by the crown, to build forts on the frontier of New York. This year William Penn returns to England; before he embarked he granted a charter to Philadelphia, and the fourth or last frame of government for the province: both these existed till the American revolution. The province and territories agree to separate and constitute two distinct legislatures, with one executive.

1712. The proprietor disposes of the government of the province to queen Ann for 12,000*l.* sterling, but being seized by an apoplexy is prevented from executing a conveyance.

1716. Governor Gookin refuses to qualify Quakers, to fill the office of justices of the peace.—Is succeeded in 1717 by sir William Keith, who was one of the most popular governors that ever filled the executive chair in Pennsylvania.

1718. William Penn died at Ruscomb, in Buckinghamshire, (O. E.)

1723. The first establishment of a general loan-office, and the emission of 45,000*l.* in paper currency, for that purpose. This emission was followed by many others, to the general benefit of the colony, without any sensible depreciation.

1726. The popular Keith is removed, and succeeded by Patrick Gordon, esq. This year the use of an affirmation (instead of an oath) which had been interrupted, is confirmed by law, and receives the royal sanction.

1736. Governor Gordon dies, and is succeeded by George Thomas, esq. This year Benjamin Franklin made his first appearance on the political stage, and is appointed clerk of the general assembly.

1742. A mob of sailors, in the pay of a party, armed with clubs, &c. attacked and beat the freemen of Philadelphia, at their general election, but are easily quelled.

1754. This year Indian hostilities were first known in Pennsylvania. The intrigues of the French, the incroachments of the frontier inhabitants, and the loose conduct of Indian traders, at length prevailed to alienate the minds of the natives from their ancient friends and allies. The expenses of supporting so long a peace with them had cost the province 1200*l.* per annum for several years preceding.

1755. Governor R. Hunter Morris published a proclamation of war against the Indians, and offered a price for Indian scalps, contrary to the opinion and advice of the legislature. Hitherto the Friends composed a great majority of the assembly, but being dissatisfied with the war, and the general conduct of their governor, most of them declined all public offices from about this time.

1763. Massacre of the Conestogoe Indians, living under the faith of government, by the white inhabitants of Pex-tang; a settlement on the frontiers of Pennsylvania, composed principally of emigrants from Ireland, and their immediate descendants. And it is as memorable that these murderers escaped unpunished, under the administration of John Penn, a grandson of the first proprietor, while the name of Penn was still venerated by the Indians for humanity and justice.

1764. Petitions to the king from the assembly and sundry inhabitants, praying him to release them from proprietary jurisdiction, and to establish a royal government. It is equally singular, that this petition should be advocated by the Quakers, as that it should be opposed by the Presbyterians.

1774. Seven delegates appointed by the general assembly to meet the general congress at Philadelphia, July 22, 1774.

1779. Act of the assembly to vest the estate of the Penn family in the commonwealth of Pennsylvania. For assistance rendered the attorney-general by a certain well known man of law, in defence of this act, the assembly voted him one hundred pounds.

1787. Federal constitution ratified, December 13, by a majority of 46 to 23.

1790. State constitution revised and amended, Sept. 2.

RELIGION. That political equality among religious sects, which is now enjoyed in most of the American states, was once the peculiar privilege of Pennsylvania; emanat-

ing from the generous mind of its founder, and established as the first of its charter rights. This equality is now extended to all who believe in the existence of One God. The most numerous sects in the state at this period, are the English and German Calvinists, of various denominations, the Quakers, Episcopalians, Lutherans, Baptists, Roman Catholics, and Methodists. There are several other religious societies, but not quite so considerable: as the Menonists, Swenkfelders, Moravians, and Dunkards, among the Germans; and among the English, the Seceders, Unitarians, Universalists, and Deists; for the last also form a religious community, and are suffered to hold their impious assemblies, and publicly to blaspheme that sacred name which all the others profess to worship with prayer and praise.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The legislative authority of this state, is divided into two branches, a senate and house of representatives. Both are elected by the people: the former for four years, with an annual rotation of one fourth, and the latter annually.—The number of representatives cannot exceed 100, nor that of senators 34.—But being chosen in the same manner, by the same electors, and with nearly the same qualifications, the idea of a check or balance is imaginary.—No pecuniary or landed estate is required in either: the senator must be 25 years of age, and have had a residence of four years; the representative full age, and a residence of three years, before his election.—The representatives propose all bills for raising a revenue, and possess the power of impeaching; the senate try impeachments, and two thirds convict. In all other respects their powers are equal.—The **GOVERNOR**, who is the chief executive magistrate, is elected triennially by the same mass of free citizens as choose the legislature, and is re-eligible for 9 years out of 12. His salary is fixed by law, and cannot be changed during the term of his administration. No religion or any other qualification is required, but the age of 30 years, and a residence in the state seven years prior to his election. He has a power of suspending the enactment of laws for one session; he may grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; remit fines and forfeitures; and possesses a very extensive patronage in the gift of offices; too large for any but a very virtuous man, and extremely dangerous in the hands of one who is a slave to passion and party rage.—The

right of suffrage is extended to all white males of full age, who have resided in the state two years, and paid taxes; and to secure these citizens from interruption, in the important business of voting, they are free from arrest for debt whilst attending elections.

The JUDGES of the supreme and county courts receive stated salaries, and are declared by the constitution to hold their commissions during *good behaviour*; but either very little wisdom has been exercised in their appointment, or the constitution is too weak to shield them against the persecution of a party; for in no other country was there ever exhibited so many instances of impeachments and removals from office, in as few years. The courts of justice are as follows, viz. a supreme court, whose jurisdiction is co-extensive with the state, comprizing a chief judge and four associates; courts of oyer and terminer and nisi prius (a branch of the supreme) which are held in the several counties as the judges appoint; and courts of quarter sessions and common pleas held quarterly in every district. There are besides, an orphans court in every county, and a high court of errors and appeals convened twice a year at the metropolis. All judicial proceedings are regulated by the common and statute laws of England, except when they contravene the constitution or some particular law of the commonwealth.—The state sends two senators and 18 representatives to the general Congress. Senators are appointed *viva voce*, by a joint vote of assembly: Representatives by the people in districts.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. Pennsylvania is divided into thirty-five counties, nineteen and part of the twentieth lying on the western side of Susquehanna; and these are subdivided into a number of townships of various dimensions. Two thirds of those counties have been formed since the revolution; not because the inhabitants have increased in that proportion, but in order to multiply offices, and to bring courts and court houses nearer to their doors, a spirit of wrangling having grown faster than the population. Notwithstanding the many physical and political advantages this state has long possessed, and the extraordinary influx of foreigners, the last twenty years, the inhabitants have not increased as rapidly as they did before the revolution. According to the general censuses of 1790 and 1800, at the first period there were 434,373

persons, and at the last 602,545 (or about 13 to a square mile) which affords a duplication in 26 years: but by the journals of assembly and the provincial assessments, the taxables that in 1731 did not exceed 10,000, in 1751 were about 21,000, and in 1771, notwithstanding an intervening war of seven years, had risen to between 39 and 40,000. The militia of the state is about 87,000 men.

REVENUES AND EXPENSES. According to public accounts exhibited to the assembly in 1802, the various expenses of the year were 397,863 dollars, (about 67 cents per head) of which the receipts fell short by 18,747 dollars. These are exclusive of poor taxes, and all other county and city rates, which constitute an additional expense, and, in the city, are above five dollars per head on all the free white inhabitants.—The revenues of the state arise from marriage and tavern licences, duties on public auctions, militia fines, the sale of vacant lands, and the interest of public money in the stocks, &c.—The revenues might have been accumulated to a prodigious amount, had the landed estate (not less than ten millions of acres) together with a vast sum of arrearages, quit-rents, city lots, &c. worth at least 20 millions of dollars, which the government obliged the Penn family to sell for 130,000*l*. been managed with common prudence; but the whole, or very near the whole, as well as the proceeds of all the confiscated estates, are consumed; and no turnpike roads, canals, or aqueducts, hospitals, churches, or state houses, to atone for the enormous spoliation. Almost every public work, since the revolution, has been executed either by private subscriptions, or the gambling profits of lotteries, and the government has been obliged sometimes to anticipate its revenues to meet the contingent expenses of the year. Should the fiscal concerns of the state be managed with no better economy, the government will in a few years be obliged to recur to a direct tax to support itself.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. The language generally used in this as in the other American states is English, and in the old counties it is spoken with considerable purity; but in the new, which are peopled mostly by Irish or Germans, or their descendants, the language is very corrupt. Among the Irish it is pronounced with the peculiar brogue of the nation, and in some of the German settlements, the people speak a mongrel dialect

they have acquired in this country, the basis of which is German. Both these classes retain many of their national peculiarities. Among the Irish farmers, a whiskey dram is a general favourite, which the master of the house hands cheerfully to every visitor; but his farm is badly managed, his cattle poor, and his barn and fences in wretched condition. The house of a Dutch farmer is commodious, but seldom elegant—his farm is generally in good order, and all his cattle sleek and thriving.—If there is any general trait in the character of the citizens of Pennsylvania, more prominent than others, it is a zeal for the total abolition of slavery, and the indiscriminate naturalization of aliens. From this source the state is inundated by a flood of blacks from the islands and the southern states, and fugitives from Europe, whose frequent crimes have contributed much to swell the dockets of all our criminal courts.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. Notwithstanding the liberality of individuals, and a small patronage from government, the benefits of education are not generally diffused through this state; owing, in a great measure, to a custom among farmers, who constitute a numerous class of the community, of keeping their children at home during the labouring months, and sending them to school only in the winter; from which cause they grow up, learning and forgetting, till they arrive at an age too stubborn to submit to discipline, and too proud to be taught. The case is different in the city, the large towns and the villages; there all branches of a liberal education are cultivated with considerable ardour and improvement.

As early as 1689, a public school was established and endowed by Friends, in the city of Philadelphia; where the learned languages, and all the useful branches of the mathematics, as well as the elements of an English education, have been taught for more than a century. In the city there is at this time one university, including a medical school, erected during the war, on the foundation, and on the funds, of Philadelphia college, a seminary flourishing in honourable fame twenty years before. This institution, besides the patronage of government, has received large aids from private munificence; it has professors in all the branches of science and medicine; public examinations are held, and literary degrees are conferred regularly

once a year.—While the college was under the direction of its ancient trustees, and Dr. Wm. Smith, its first provost and most zealous patron, it flourished beyond any other institution of the kind, in British America; and it still holds a respectable rank among the public seminaries in the United States.

Institutions of an inferior order, particularly female academies, are very numerous. The colleges at Carlisle, Lancaster, and York-town, academies in several small villages, and a large boarding school about 20 miles from the city, erected by Friends, and capable of accommodating 200 children, bear honourable testimony to the enlightened and liberal spirit of Pennsylvania.

CHIEF TOWNS. The metropolis of Pennsylvania and the largest city in the United States is Philadelphia; situated about four miles above the confluence of Delaware and Schuylkill, in the latitude of $39^{\circ} 57'$ N. and long. of $75^{\circ} 8'$ W. from London. This city was founded by William Penn in the year 1682, and in little more than a century has grown from a few caves on the western bank of the Delaware to a large city, containing 12,000 houses, mostly built with bricks, and 70,000 inhabitants.—The harbour, wharves, warehouses, and public markets, particularly the latter, are not equalled by those of any other city in the United States; and were it not for some obstruction in the navigation, about two months of winter, its central situation, the industry, productions, and population of the state, would render it without a competitor the greatest emporium of the western world.—There are four incorporated banks in the city, viz. the bank of North America, those of the United States, of Pennsylvania, and Philadelphia, whose united capitals may amount to 15,000,000 of dollars.—The principal buildings are 28 houses of religious worship, some of them very large and handsome; a state house erected in the year 1735, and 2 court houses, one at the end of each wing of the state house: south of the state house is the public gaol, a stone building, one hundred feet front, which is perhaps the most elegant and secure edifice of the kind in the Union; the city library; philosophical hall and dispensary; the Pennsylvania hospital; an alms house and house of employment; engine houses for raising water from the river Schuylkill to sup-

ply the city with a wholesome fluid; the banks of the United States and Pennsylvania, two superb buildings, the former with a front of white marble, and the latter faced wholly with the same material.—The humane and literary foundations in Philadelphia are numerous, and reflect considerable honour on the enlightened and liberal minds of its inhabitants.—The great abundance of provisions, that is exposed twice a week in Philadelphia market, has long been the admiration of strangers; but the benefits of this abundance are much lessened to the inhabitants by numerous vermin, called *hucksters*, who forestal every article brought to market, except butchers' meat, and retail it on the same day to consumers, with an advance at least of 25 per centum. This enormous mischief, which costs the city at least half a million of dollars per annum, is of recent date; and the corporation possesses no power at present to restrain it, the authority of regulating the municipal concerns of the city, which was formerly vested wholly in that body, having been abridged by the interference of the state legislature.

The next place worthy of notice is *Lancaster*, situated about 60 miles to the westward of Philadelphia. This is the present seat of the state government, and contains about 5000 inhabitants. York, Reading, Carlisle, Pittsburgh and Harrisburgh, are all county towns, of considerable trade and population; but as we have allotted so much space to the metropolis, our limits will not permit us to describe them more minutely.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. Although Pennsylvania is not so far advanced in manufactures as the ancient, more populous, states of New England, yet she may boast of many considerable establishments that exhibit great proofs of her public spirit, enterprize and industry. The manufactures of flour, nails, wool and cotton cards, hats, hosiery, beer, porter, snuff, tobacco, paper, boots and shoes, cabinet wares, and carriages of pleasure, are prosecuted to a considerable amount, and form a respectable portion of her exports. In 1802 there were 28 furnaces making annually 21,000 tons of pigs and castings; 72 forges making 12,960 tons of bar iron; 11 slitting mills making 27,750 tons of plates, &c. 12 tilting hammers, and two steel furnaces making 150 tons of steel.—The foreign commerce

is also very extensive: besides the articles above mentioned, wheat, Indian corn, flax seed, tobacco, soap and candles, furs, iron, boards, staves and scantling, beef, pork, and a great variety of other articles of domestic produce; together with a large amount of re-exported foreign goods and merchandize, have been shipped in one year, to the value of twelve millions of dollars.—The imports are about the same value, comprising most of the principal manufactures of Europe and India, as well as the produce and manufactures of the West India islands, the greatest part of all which are re-exported to the nations of Europe, or their colonies; while they are equally busy, cutting one another's throats.—The shipping of Philadelphia was estimated in the year 1799 at 98,237 tons.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The air of Pennsylvania is very variable, and the transitions sudden: the variation has been as great as 50° in the course of a month. Some days the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer has risen to 96° and at others it has fallen to 5° below 0. The medial heat is about 52° . The prevailing winds are westerly: of 726 observations, in two years, 360 were S. W. and W. 190 were N. W. and N. and the remainder variable, pretty often in the N. E. There are generally about 200 clear days in the year; about 120 obscured with clouds, and between 40 and 50 attended with either rain or snow. The greatest proportion of fair weather is in October, and of rainy in April. The winter generally sets in about Christmas, and continues with a considerable variety of weather, chiefly freezing, till March: more rain and less snow than in the early periods of the colony. The frequent rains in the spring render the air chilly and disagreeable, but they soak the ground and prepare it for early vegetation, as soon as summer advances; whereby grain ripens and is cut down near a month earlier than it is in Europe. So wisely has the Great Creator diversified his dispensations for the benefit of man!

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The greatest part of the land in Pennsylvania is of a middling quality, inclining to clay and loam mixed with sand, and very capable of improvement when worn out by bad management. The proportion of black rich mould is not inconsiderable, particularly on the banks and near the estuaries of the great rivers,

as well as in the intervalles between the mountains. But there is, nevertheless, a great deal of broken rocky land, which is at present valued only for its timber, and as a range for cattle.—This state is still pre-eminent for the cultivation of the useful grains, and for the skill and industry of its farmers. By the introduction of gypsum or plaister of Paris, and the cultivation of clover on upland, a great deal of the impoverished soil has been renovated within the last thirty years.

MOUNTAINS. The first considerable chain that presents itself, like a cloud in the horizon, to a person travelling westward from Philadelphia, is the South mountain; distant from fifty to seventy miles from the sea, and extending through the state, not in one continued ridge, but in broken detached elevations. Beyond these is a plain of rich land, highly cultivated, and abounding in many parts with limestone; and from ten to twenty miles farther westward rises the Kittitany or Endless mountain, so called from its very extensive length. This is not like the preceding, broken into lofty peaks, but stretches in long uniform ridges, scarcely half a mile perpendicular, in any place, above the intermediate vales. In some places this ridge seems to interlock with the towering Alleghany, which is the loftiest and most western ridge that intersects Pennsylvania; passing through Northampton, Dauphin, Bedford, Huntington and Fayette counties. The position of all these chains is principally from N. E. to S. W. though considerable spurs, shooting from each, deviate a few degrees from the general direction.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. Of the native quadrupeds of the American forests some are almost extirpated, and most of them very scarce in the old counties of Pennsylvania. The elk, deer, and beaver, are seldom seen even on the west side of the Alleghany mountain; bears, wolves, foxes, racoons, opossums, rabbits and squirrels are more numerous; but their stock is so much reduced within fifty miles of the metropolis, as hardly to compensate the sportsman for the trouble of hunting them.—Similar in a great degree has been the fate of the feathered tribes. The woods formerly abounded with turkeys, pheasants, grouse, pigeons, partridges, woodcocks; and the streams with a great variety of water fowl; all which are become comparatively scarce.

This perhaps is owing to the indiscriminate right every man has to carry his gun, and to shoot game.—The principal and most productive mines in the state are those of iron; these have yielded nearly 20,000 tons of iron for exportation, in one year, besides supplying the numerous demands of home consumption. Some parts of the state abound with excellent coal, near the surface of the earth, though no considerable body of it has yet been discovered near enough to the city to supply it with a cheap fuel. There are also copper and lead mines, but they have hitherto yielded no considerable profit to the owners, owing principally to the high price of labour.

RIVERS, BAYS AND LAKES. The Delaware, called by the aborigines Poutaxat, is the noblest stream in Pennsylvania, and divides it from the state of New Jersey, rising principally in the mountains of New York. Its course is nearly north and south, and length about 160 miles; the greater part of which distance it is navigated by long flat bottomed boats—The tide flows about 130 miles from the ocean, or 30 miles above Philadelphia, rising about six feet, with a common flood. At the city it is about a mile wide, and navigable by ships of 1200 tons burden.—The western branch of this river, called the Lehigh, approaches within 28 miles of the Susquehanna, and a turnpike road is now forming, to facilitate the transportation of produce from one stream to the other.—The Schuylkill, which may be considered as another branch of Delaware, as they unite about 100 miles from the ocean, rises in the mountains of Berks county, and mingles its waters with the Delaware about four miles below Philadelphia. In Schuylkill the tide flows but five miles above its mouth, being stopped there by a considerable ledge of rocks; but it is navigated by boats and setting poles sixty or seventy miles farther.—The Susquehanna has its principal springs in Northumberland and Luzerne counties. The two branches that form this river unite at Sunbury, about 120 miles from the metropolis: thence the main stream flows in a south direction through Pennsylvania, to within a few miles of its outlet; where meeting the line of Maryland it enters that state, and empties into the Chesapeake near the head of the bay. Although the length of this river is about 250 miles, the tide rises but a short distance, owing to several considerable ledges of rocks that render the navigation

dangerous except in freshets. Should the rivalry between Pennsylvania and Maryland rise high enough to excite sensations of hostility between them, the navigation of the Susquehanna will become the source of contention; as that of the Scheld formerly was between the House of Austria and the United Provinces, being terminated only by the intervention of a stronger claimant, without any right, who wrested the jurisdiction from both.—The Juniata which runs through some of the western counties, and unites with the Susquehanna about 10 miles above Harrisburgh, is a bold stream, uninterrupted by falls, and navigable by large boats 50 or 60 miles.—On the western side of the Alleghany mountain is the river Ohio, and its two auxiliary branches, the Alleghany and Monongahela, one of which pursues a north and the other a south course through the frontier counties of Pennsylvania. All these waters, together with some others not noticed, are so happily disposed, and approach one another in their ramifications in so many places, as must, in a few years, with the aid of canals and turnpike roads, become the source of incalculable wealth to this central and flourishing state.—There are no bays within the limits of Pennsylvania, as that of the river Delaware washes the shore of New Jersey state, on one side, and that of Delaware, on the other. The north western corner of Pennsylvania is bounded by lake Erie, part of it therefore may be said to belong to this state. This angle has lately been formed into a new county, denominated Erie, and contains about 1600 inhabitants.

DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. THIS State lies between the latitudes of $38^{\circ} 29\frac{1}{2}'$ and $39^{\circ} 54'$ north, and in the longitude of $0 40'$ W. from Philadelphia, or about 76° W. from London, and is bounded on the east by the bay and river of the same name; on the north by a circular line

which separates it from Pennsylvania; and on the south as well as west by the state of Maryland. It contains about 2000 square miles, or about one million three hundred thousand acres.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. Of the savage tribes who possessed this country before the arrival of the Europeans we have but an imperfect knowledge: the most distinguished perhaps was the Susquehannocks, from whom was derived the name of a considerable river in the vicinity. The Hollanders were probably the first Europeans who planted a colony on the shores of the Delaware, including this peninsula, together with New Jersey and New York; under the general appellation of the New Netherlands, as early as the year 1623.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. As this state was formerly considered as an appendage of Pennsylvania, belonging to the same proprietor, always governed by the same executive chief magistrate, and nearly by the same laws, its principal events to the period of the American revolution were connected with those of Pennsylvania and have been detailed already. Delegates appointed to meet the general Congress at Philadelphia, Aug. 1, 1774.

The state Constitution framed, June 12, 1792.

Federal Constitution ratified, Dec. 3, 1787.

RELIGION. The religious sects in this state are not as numerous as those of Pennsylvania. The Presbyterians and Quakers are perhaps the most prevailing, but there are many congregations of Episcopalians, Baptists, and Methodists. The members of the Swedish church are comparatively few, but their place of worship, still remaining at Wilmington, is one of the first that was built in this country. No preference is given by law or constitution to any particular society: but the patriots who framed the constitution were not ashamed to declare the state a christian republic, and to publish to the world that they preferred the religion of Jesus Christ to that of either Mahomet or Confucius. Every officer of this state is obliged to declare his belief in the divinity of Jesus Christ, and the inspiration of the Holy Scriptures, before he is permitted to enter on the duties of his appointment.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The civil code of the state varies but little from that of Pennsylvania. A longer residence is necessary, in a candidate for the office of gover-

nor, and he has not even a suspending negative on the making of laws.—The members of the Senate are elected but for three years, and of course the rotation is only of one third of the number annually: but the qualifications of the members of both houses are more judiciously defined. A Senator must be 27 years of age, and possess a freehold of 200 acres of land, or other estate worth 1000*l*. and a representative must be 24 years of age, and be also a freeholder. With the consent of the governor, and three fourths of both houses, any alteration may be made in the constitution; but a state convention cannot be called, unless the requisition has been expressly voted for by the people, at a general election.—In this as in most of the states the clergy are disqualified to hold any civil office in the commonwealth, which perhaps is a wise regulation; for if a clergyman preserve his appropriate influence in the legislative body, it will in some measure interfere with the freedom of discussion, and abridge the independence of other members, which ought ever to be avoided: but the great danger lies in the diminution of his own respectability and usefulness as a minister of the gospel, which God knows is already too small. If the present generation pay too little regard to the grave advice of a man whom they meet but once a week, in the house of prayer, and hear reasoning only on the great concerns of another world, on “righteousness, temperance, and a judgment to come,” how much more lightly will they esteem him, if they behold him engaged in political squabbles, managed often with heat and rancour, and discover that he is a slave to the same passions, and involved in the same intrigues, as themselves. Were this man, like John the Baptist, “a burning and shining light” while confined to the duties of his sacred office, he would soon be shorn of his beams, by such an intercourse with the profane.—The state sends two senators and one representative to Congress. Senators appointed by a joint ballot of the two houses: representatives elected by a plurality of the people.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The state of Delaware is divided into three counties, New Castle, Kent and Sussex, all bounding eastward on the river of the same name, and these again are subdivided into Hundreds. The number of inhabitants according to the last census was 64,273, six thousand one hundred and twenty three of whom were slaves. The population is about 32

persons to a square mile. The increase in ten years, about 4000. The militia of the state forms one division consisting of three brigades.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND LANGUAGE. The inhabitants of this state are principally descended from English ancestors: there are a few Swedish families; and a full proportion of Irish extraction; as many of the emigrants from Ireland, who land at New Castle, settle in this state, although they intend at first to go to Pennsylvania. There are but few Germans; and the language and manners in general, are assimilated with those of the English inhabitants of Pennsylvania, retaining a considerable portion of the sedate and orderly character of the original settlers, averse from innovation and riot.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. There is an academy at Wilmington, and another at New-Ark, in the state of Delaware: the latter is pretty well supported. Private schools are sufficiently numerous in every part of the commonwealth; nor has the legislature been inattentive to the general education, having appropriated a sufficient fund for the support of public schools.

CHIEF TOWNS. The principal town is Wilmington, in New Castle county, situated on the north bank of the river Christianna, about two miles from its junction with the Delaware, and contains about 3,500 inhabitants. It supports a considerable foreign as well as domestic trade; has a bank of discount and deposit; and when the grand canal between Delaware and Chesapeake bays is perfected, this town will become the depot of a great mass of produce and merchandise.—New Castle, about 35 miles below Philadelphia, on the Delaware, is an inconsiderable town, though the seat of the county courts, and the most ancient town on the river, having been built by the Swedes about the year 1627. It contains about 60 houses, and these exhibit an appearance of decay.—Dover, which is the seat of the state government, stands on Jones' creek, a few miles from Delaware river, and about 28 below Wilmington. This town contains about 100 houses, mostly of brick, and has altogether a lively thriving appearance.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The manufacture for which this state is most famous is that of flour. The merchant mills built on the tide water of the Brandywine creek give constant employment to about 200 per-

sons, and have manufactured upwards of 300,000 bushels of grain, principally wheat, in the course of six months. But besides these, there are other constructions higher up the same water, for sawing stone, manufacturing of paper, snuff, nail rods, sheet iron, &c.—The foreign trade of Wilmington, which is the principal sea-port of the state, is very considerable; the exports in the year 1802 having amounted to 440,500 dollars, principally of domestic produce and manufactures.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of this peninsula differs but little from that of Pennsylvania, but being a flat country, and almost incircled by two large bays, its atmosphere is more humid as well as temperate. Heavy fogs, intermittent fevers, and brackish water, render the inhabitants of the two southern counties a pale and sickly race. The northern and north-western parts, which border on Pennsylvania, being higher ground and intersected by some considerable hills, possess purer water and a more elastic air.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil of the lower part of this state is sandy, there hardly being stone enough on two plantations to line a single well: their buildings, therefore, are mostly constructed with bricks. Indian corn and rye are the grains chiefly cultivated, except in the northern part where the soil partakes of clay, and produces middling crops of wheat. Clover is introduced into most of the plantations, where the soil will admit of it.

-ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. The animals of Delaware are the same as in Pennsylvania; the principal forest trees are cedars and pines, which grow with great exuberance; and the drained meadows yield heavy crops of a coarse natural grass.

RIVERS AND BAYS. There is no river within the limits of this state but the one which gives it a name, and washes its eastern boundary. It is irrigated by numerous smaller streams; those of most note are the Brandywine, the Christianna, Jones' creek, Mother-kill, Mispillion, and Indian river. The great bay of Delaware extends along the eastern shore of the state from Bombay-hook to the light-house at Cape Henlopen; and Rehobath bay, once noted for its banks of oysters, runs up to the mouth of Indian river, and is united with the Atlantic ocean, near the southern limits of the state.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. MARYLAND is situated between $37^{\circ} 56'$ and $39^{\circ} 44'$ north latitudes, and the longitude of 0 and $4^{\circ} 30'$ west from Philadelphia, or of 75° and 79° west from London. It is bounded on the east by the Atlantic and the state of Delaware; on the north by Pennsylvania; on the south and west by the river Potomac which separates it from Virginia, and an ideal line extending from the mouth of that river in a due eastern direction to the Atlantic ocean, containing about 14,000 square miles, or about nine millions of acres; near a sixth water.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The Susquehannock and Potomac Indians, who gave their names to the two great rivers which in some measure bound the state of Maryland, were among the most noted savage tribes that were the original lords of this territory. From some of these the first English adventurers who settled here, purchased a considerable tract of land in the spring of 1633, when they laid the foundation of a town which they called St. Mary's, near the mouth of the great river Potomac.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1632. The grant from king Charles to Cecilius Calvert, lord Baltimore. 1633. The first emigrants, under the conduct of lord Baltimore's brother, arrive and settle at St. Mary's. In the same year the Virginians complain of this grant as a dismemberment of their colony; but Baltimore's patent is confirmed.

1634—5. The first assembly convened, consisting of all the freemen.

1639. In consequence of the rapid increase of the colony, principally by Roman Catholics, a legislature is composed of the representatives of the freemen, called Burgesses, and of others summoned by the governor's special writ: they were afterwards divided into two distinct branches.

1642. An Indian war which lasted several years, and did great mischief to the colony in its infant state.

1645. An insurrection in favour of Cromwell and the Parliament, under the conduct of one Clayborne, by which Calvert, the royal governor, was forced to fly to Virginia for protection. Calvert agreeing afterwards to submit to the Parliament, returned and governed in peace till 1651; when fresh contention broke out, and rose at length to a civil war. The governor with some of the Roman Catholics is obliged once more to desert the province. The victorious party, being chiefly Presbyterians, passed a law to proscribe popery and prelacy. This scene of hypocrisy and oppression continued till the restoration. Many of these Presbyterians had fled hither from Virginia, to obtain religious liberty, which, when invested with power, they were unwilling to grant to others.

1660. The old government restored, Philip Calvert, a brother of lord Baltimore, appointed governor.

1676. Cecilius Calvert lord Baltimore died. At this time the province contained 16,000 inhabitants. Its prosperity owing to the wise and mild administration of the Calverts.

1689. The government taken from lord Baltimore, for his supposed attachment to king James II.

1692. A law passed establishing the Protestant religion.

1699. Annapolis made the seat of government.

1716. The government restored to the proprietor.

1762. The boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland, which had long been a subject of dispute between the proprietors, finally settled by Mason and Dixon.

Five delegates appointed to meet the first general congress at Philadelphia, June 22d, 1774.

During the American war, the people, or the government of this state, forgetting their many and great obligations to the Baltimore family, confiscated their estate, valued at 570,000*l.* currency.

State constitution framed, August, 1776. Altered and amended in 1789, '95 and '99. Federal constitution ratified, February 28, 1788, by a majority of 63 to 12.

RELIGION. As the first proprietor of Maryland, as well as a great part of the first settlers, were Roman Catholics, this religious society has always been perhaps the most numerous: at their head is a bishop of very respectable character and connections. But as they have from the earliest period manifested a truly *catholic* spirit, which ought to be commemorated to their praise, and as

there now exists the most perfect equality of rights, other religious sects have multiplied in almost every part of the state. There are several very respectable congregations of Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Quakers, Baptists and Methodists among the English, as well as of Lutherans and Calvinists among the Germans. A declaration of belief in the Christian religion is required of all the officers of government ; but no gift or devise can be made, of more than two acres of land, for any religious use, without a special license first obtained from the legislature.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The constitution of this state has some peculiar features. The legislature consists of two branches, a house of delegates, and a senate, styled together the *General Assembly* : the former are chosen annually by the people ; a member must be of full age ; possess an estate worth 500*l.* currency ; and have resided in the state one year prior to his election. This branch originates all money bills, but dare not tack any extraneous matter to them, and they have the appointment of the principal fiscal officers.—The senate consists of 15 members, nine for the western, and six for the eastern shore, and are chosen by electors, once in five years. The qualifications required are, a residence in the state three years preceding the election, the age of 25 years, and an estate worth 1000*l.* currency. If any vacancy happen in this chamber, between the periods of election, it is filled by an appointment of its own members.—The electors of the senate are chosen by the people at large (which destroys its efficacy as a check) and every white male, of full age, who has resided one year in the county, and is worth 30*l.* has a right of suffrage—and to add to the evil, votes are given *viva voce*. Except in bills for raising revenue, the powers and privileges of the two branches are equal.—The governor, who is the chief executive magistrate, is elected by the legislature, annually, and is re-eligible three years out of seven. The qualifications requisite, are a residence in the state five years ; the age of 25 years ; and an estate worth 5000*l.* currency, one half in freehold : he may be prosecuted in a court of law for misconduct, and displaced from office.—His powers are very limited. He is styled commander in chief ; but without the concurrence of the executive council, consisting of five members, he can grant neither pardons nor reprieves, nor appoint or remove of-

ficers of government—nor has he any negative on the laws.—The principal judiciary officers, are a chancellor, judges and justices of the peace, who are appointed by the governor and council, and hold their offices during good behaviour. Their salaries are established by law, and cannot be changed while they continue in office.—This state sends two senators and nine representatives to the general congress. Senators are appointed by a joint ballot of both houses: the representatives, elected by a plurality of the people in districts.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION, AND MILITIA. Maryland is divided into nineteen counties; eight on the eastern, and eleven on the western shore of Chesapeak bay. The number of inhabitants in 1800 was 349,692, of which nearly one-third were slaves. The population about 25 persons to a square mile. Although this state has grown considerably in wealth and commerce since the revolution, its increase of inhabitants has been very inadequate, not one per centum annually for the last ten years. The militia may be about 30,000 men. Whites under 16 years, 89,868; above, 110,257. Of 45 years and upwards, 11,439. White males, 107,150—ditto females, 92,975.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND LANGUAGE. In delineating the character of a nation correctly, we must take it from the inhabitants of the country who, almost every where, but especially in the United States, constitute the great mass of population. In the large trading towns of the Union, there is a great similarity of character, produced by frequent intercourse, and the common genius of commerce: their speculations, and in some degree, their manners are moulded in the same moral forms. But among the peasantry, who live more isolated, and whose peculiar features are more distinctly marked, there are obvious shades of difference; and these shades begin to shew themselves more sensibly to the eye of an inquisitive traveller as he progresses southward. He no longer beholds so great a proportion of hardy, industrious, and healthful yeomanry, living on terms of equality and independence; their domestic economy neat and comfortable; their farms well stocked; in good order; and their cattle sleek and thriving. On the contrary he discovers the farm-houses more thinly scattered, some of them miserable hovels, the retreats of small proprietors who are too indolent or too

proud to labour; here and there a stack of corn-fodder, and the cattle looking as miserable as their owners. A few miles distant perhaps he finds a large mansion house, the property of the lord of two or three thousand acres of land, surrounded by 50 or 100 negro-huts, constructed in the slightest manner; and about these cabins swarms of black slaves, some in rags, and others in *juris naturalibus*; with here and there a sprinkling of yellow, the fruits of a licentious commerce between white men and the female slaves. But to relieve this sombre portrait, which, however disagreeable, will apply to a portion of most of the southern states, it is but just to observe, that many of the gentry are distinguishable for their polished manners and education, as well as for their great hospitality to strangers. As the multitude of slaves has essentially injured the moral character, so it has in some measure corrupted the language of the white inhabitants: the pronunciation and phraseology, among the peasantry, is very corrupt, and may distinguished by the epithet of Creolian.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. There are several literary institutions in this state which reflect an honour on the liberal spirit of the inhabitants: the principal are, an academy in Somerset county, founded in 1779, by private donations and subscriptions; a college at Chester, founded in 1782, and endowed by government with a handsome income of 1250*l.* currency; another in Annapolis, endowed with 1750*l.* per annum. In 1784, the Roman Catholics erected a college at George-town; and in 1785, the Methodists established another at Abingdon, in Harford county. The government has also made provision for the maintenance of free schools in every county of the state, though the law has not yet been carried into full operation. Many of the youth of the best families, in this as well as all the southern states, go abroad, some to Europe, to perfect their education.

REVENUES AND EXPENSES. The revenues of government are produced by duties on exports and imports, and by taxes on estates real and personal, which amounted to 363,772 dollars, in seven years ending in 1798. The annual expenses are about 53,000 dollars, equal to a capita-tion tax of sixteen cents per head.

CHIEF TOWNS. The capital of Maryland is the small city of Annapolis, in Ann-Arundel county, contain-

ing but about 2000 inhabitants. Although it can boast of but little trade, it possesses great wealth, some very elegant buildings, public and private, and has been selected as the seat of government, before as well as since the revolution. The Marylanders have studied to deviate as little as possible from their ancient habits.—But the most remarkable town is Baltimore, on the Patapsco river; in point of size as well as commerce it is the fourth in the American confederacy. At the period of the last general enumeration it contained 26,514 inhabitants. Fell's Point, which may be considered as part of the town, possesses an excellent harbour, where all the large vessels lade and unlade, the more ancient or western part having but shallow water. There are in the town nine places of public religious worship; three banks, besides a branch of that of the United States, and several insurance companies.—The town next in consideration is Frederick-town, in Frederick county, situated in a rich fertile country, and containing about 2,600 inhabitants, principally Germans, or their descendants; which will soon be rivalled by Hagers-town, on the west side of the south mountain, in Washington county, erected in the bosom of a fertile valley filled with opulent farmers.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The manufactures of Maryland are not very numerous. The chief are those of flour, iron and paper, besides a few coarse articles made of wool or flax by the farmers, for domestic consumption. The trade is nevertheless very extensive. Besides the wheat, flour, Indian corn, pork, lumber, and iron, produced in the state, they export from Baltimore a great deal of what is raised in the western counties of Pennsylvania.—The total of the exports from this state in the year 1802, was valued at 8,000,000 of dollars. The imports are nearly to the same amount, from Europe, the East and West Indies, though the major part is either re-exported or dispersed by land into the interior of the neighbouring states.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. There is a considerable diversity in the atmosphere of this state. All the Eastern shore, and a considerable part of the Western, enjoys a mild and temperate air; but it being loaded with exhalations from the Chesapeak, and the numerous streams which irrigate this level country, produces annually a sickly crop of

intermittents. Frederick and Washington counties in the north-western extremity of the state enjoy a more salubrious air, being, like Pennsylvania, variegated with hills and dales, and abounding with wholesome water from upper and nether springs.—According to meteorological observations made in this state, the mercury ranges in Fahrenheit's thermometer, from 93° to 10° . The medial heat about 60° . From 524 memorandums in the years 1753—4 the winds were 207 N. W. 72 S. E. 71 E. 59 N. E. &c.—and from 493 observations on the weather, in the same years, there were 314 fair days and 179 cloudy, &c.

BAYS AND RIVERS. The Chesapeak bay which we have had occasion to mention already, divides this state into what are called the Eastern and Western shores, and is the largest in the United States, being fed by numerous tributary rivers. This expansive bason contains many valuable fisheries, and is the common highway of a very extensive internal commerce.—The principal rivers of Maryland that fall into this bay are the Susquehanna, already described under the head of Pennsylvania; the Patapsco, an inconsiderable stream, being only about 30 yards wide, a small distance above the bason on which is erected the city of Baltimore; the Patuxent which rises in Ann-Arundel county, and falls into the bay a few miles north of the Potomac; and the Severn which washes the walls of Annapolis.—On the Eastern shore are the Chester, Choptank, Pocomoke, and Nanticoke, which are considerable streams, and the channels of a valuable commerce through the several counties of this wealthy peninsula. Of the Potomac we will take farther notice when we come to treat of Virginia.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. VIRGINIA is comprised between $36^{\circ} 30'$ and $40^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and the longitude of 0 and 8° west from Philadelphia, or $75^{\circ} 54'$ and $83^{\circ} 8'$ west from London; containing about 70,000

square miles, equal to about 44,000,000 of acres, inclusive of water. On the east, it is bounded by the Atlantic; on the north and north-west by Pennsylvania, the rivers Ohio and Potomac; on the west by Kentucky; and on the south by Tennessee and North Carolina.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. When the English made their first settlement in Virginia, in the year 1607, this country, "from the sea-coast to the mountains, and from Potomac to the southern waters of James river, was occupied by upwards of forty different tribes of Indians. Of these the Powhatans, the Mannahoaes, and the Monacans were the most powerful." The territories of the Powhatan confederacy alone comprehended about 8000 square miles, and about 8000 inhabitants. These numerous tribes are all nearly extinct: Of forty nations and upwards, there are hardly forty persons left to witness the baleful progress of European civilization.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1584. Sir W. Raleigh, having obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, sent the first colony to Virginia, under the command of Amadas and Barlow, who effected a landing on an island in Albemarle sound: but quarrelling with the natives, they were forced to quit the country, in June of the year following. They carried with them the first tobacco leaves that were seen in England, and taught the use of it to their countrymen.

1596. Sir W. Raleigh assigned his patent to Sir Thomas Smith and Co.

1607. The design renewed; 105 adventurers under captain Newport entered James river, and settled upon a spot near its mouth which they afterwards called James-Town.

1608. In a battle with the natives, captain Smith, the English commander, is taken prisoner. His life is saved by the intercession of Pocahonta, an Indian princess, who rushed between the victim and his executioner.

1610. The colony in great distress are about to desert the country, but are prevented by the seasonable arrival of Lord Delawar, with a considerable re-inforcement. From his administration may be dated the permanent establishment of Virginia.

1612. The colony thrives: an advantageous treaty formed with Indians, by which these engage to supply the whites with a stipulated quantity of Indian corn, annually.

Rolfe, a very respectable planter, married the Indian princess Pocahonta.

About this time the land was first divided into lots, and granted to individuals in full property ; it having been cultivated before by joint labour, and the produce carried into common store-houses. The existence of martial law conduces greatly to preserve peace and subordination.

1616. The culture of tobacco pursued with industry.

A cargo of young women, of humble birth, but virtuous character, imported, to the great benefit of the colony, and increase of white inhabitants.

The Dutch arrived with a cargo of black slaves, the first that were introduced into the British colonies, and sold them to the planters.

1619. The first assembly of representatives met to enact laws for the colony.

Trade opened with the Hollanders for tobacco : and trading houses established at Flushing, &c.

The Indians plot the total extirpation of the whites, and massacre a prodigious number of the dispersed inhabitants — which is retaliated by the whites, with equal treachery.

1625. The tyrannical conduct of Charles the first caused great discontent and confusion. The inhabitants seized their governor, Sir John Harvey, and sent him prisoner to England.

1639. Sir William Berkley's wise administration restored peace and good order. At the commencement of the civil war in England, Virginia adhered to the crown.

1650. In consequence of this conduct, the English parliament denounced the inhabitants as traitors ; and in the year following they equipped a considerable force, naval and military, to subdue the colony, which after a short struggle is obliged to submit.

1676. The planters were discontented with the conduct of king Charles II. in granting large tracts of land to his friends and favourites. This caused a rebellion in the province under the leading of Bacon, an artful ambitious demagogue. The insurgents march in great force to James-Town, and oblige their governor and his friends to fly into Maryland.

1677. The insurrection ceased on the death of Bacon, the principal conspirator. Sir W. Berkley, the legitimate governor is re-instated.

1688. The inhabitants exceed sixty thousand souls.

1692-8. Charter and endowment of William and Mary college. State house at James-Town with many valuable papers consumed by fire. Seat of government removed to Williamsburgh.

Seven delegates appointed to meet the general congress at Philadelphia, August 5, 1774.

State constitution framed July 5, 1776.

Federal constitution ratified June 25, 1788, by a majority of 89 to 79.

RELIGION. High church bigotry raged in Virginia, for near a century, as furiously as Presbyterian zeal once flamed in New England, hanging by the neck, boring the tongue, and a few other pious pranks excepted; but it was succeeded in the predominant church by a love of pleasure, and an indifference about religion that bordered on total dereliction.—Long before the revolution, dissenters of almost every denomination were not only tolerated, but increased rapidly with the growing population of the province. After the establishment of independence, the rights of conscience were confirmed by special acts of the state government, and all sects now enjoy a perfect equality. The most numerous denomination of Christians at the present period is that of Presbyterians; these with other dissenting sects, such as quakers, anabaptists, methodists, &c. occupy some part of eastern, and the principal settlements in western Virginia.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The constitution of this state differs not much from that of Maryland. The governor is appointed annually by a concurrent ballot of the two houses of legislature, and is re-eligible three years out of seven. The constitution requires no other qualification but the age of 30 years.—He has a privy council of eight members, who are also chosen by the assembly, with whom he is bound to advise on all important subjects of a public concern. With their concurrence he may grant reprieves and pardons, except when the legislature has prosecuted, or the law directs otherwise.—The only public officers he appoints are justices of the peace and militia officers. In short he is very little more than a state pageant, and is paid accordingly, for by an estimate published in Mr. Jefferson's notes, he receives but 3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$ dollars per annum, which is about one-half of what the Penn-

sylvanians pay their chief magistrate. In a case of vacancy, the president of the privy council, who is always chosen by themselves, acts as governor.—The legislature, which is styled the general assembly, is formed of two branches, viz. a senate consisting of 24 members, elected by the people quadrennially, with an annual renovation of one-fourth, and a chamber of delegates which is elected by the people every year.—Every county sends two members, without respect to its population, which gives the old counties that are the most numerous, though least populous, an undue preponderance in all the councils of the state.—The principal qualification required in a candidate for either house, is a residence, and a freehold in the county he is chosen to represent.—Bills originate in the chamber of delegates, which the senate may amend, or wholly reject, if they think proper, unless the bills are for raising a revenue which they cannot amend, but must adopt or reject *in toto*.—The assembly nominate the state treasurer, and all the principal officers of the judiciary department, during good behaviour, and may cause them to be prosecuted for misconduct.—Justice is dispensed either by justices of the peace, who decide finally in causes not exceeding 10 dollars in value; by county courts in disputes not exceeding 10*l.* sterling, or where the title or bounds of land are not concerned; by a court of chancery, a general court, or a court of admiralty.—There is also a court of errors and appeals, to correct the mistakes of inferior tribunals, which meets twice a year at the seat of government.—Freeholders only enjoy the right of suffrage at elections; but an alien removing to the state, with a design to settle, acquires all the rights of a native citizen, upon taking an oath of fidelity.—The importation of slaves is prohibited under a penalty of 1000*l.* currency.—The state is represented in general congress by two senators and 22 representatives; senators are appointed by a joint ballot of the two houses: representatives are elected by freeholders in districts.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. Virginia is divided into about 80 counties, and these are formed into parishes of various dimensions, dependent on the number and situation of the episcopal churches. Agreeably to the census of 1800, this state contained 886,149 inhabitants, which gives about $12\frac{1}{2}$ persons to a square mile; of these nearly two-fifths were slaves, mostly black. Increase in 10

years, from 1790 to 1800 was 138,539, which is a great falling off from the progress of population about the middle of the eighteenth century. The inhabitants in the year 1756 were estimated at 173,316 and in 1774 at 300,000. Increase in 18 years 126,684, or a duplication in $24\frac{1}{2}$ years. Male whites 264,159, females 254,485; under 16 years of both sexes 260,988, above 247,586; of 45 years and upwards 58,000. By the last returns made to congress the militia amounted to about 60,000, and the muskets to 6,530.

MANNERS, LANGUAGE AND CUSTOMS. We have very little to add under this head, to our preceding observations on the manners, customs, and language of Maryland. If the planters of Virginia differ from their neighbours at all, it is in possessing more hauteur, as members of the ancient dominion, and citizens of a more influential state, less qualified by the republican spirit of commerce. But all our remarks on this head apply chiefly to the inhabitants living on the east side of the Blue Ridge; the western part of the state has fewer blacks and more labouring whites, in proportion; being settled in a great measure by emigrants from Pennsylvania and New Jersey, who differ much from their eastern neighbours.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. The principal public school in Virginia, is the college of William and Mary at Williamsburgh, which was founded in the reign of king William and queen Mary, and endowed by them with a grant of 20,000 acres of land, and a penny a pound duty on tobacco, as well as some considerable privileges. The assembly further enriched the institution by a duty on liquors, and on skins and furs exported; the joint produce of these funds was upwards of 3000*l.* currency per ann.—The buildings though not constructed in an elegant style, are of bricks, and large enough to accommodate one hundred students, though there are seldom above thirty or forty educated at any one time.—There is another college in Prince Edward county, as well as several academies in other parts of the state, as at Alexandria, Norfolk, Hanover, &c.—Most of the counties are furnished with common English schools, where children are taught to read, write and cast accounts.

REVENUES AND EXPENSES. The revenues of this state in the year 1802, were estimated at 532,765 dollars,

and the expenses at 377,703 dollars, the latter amounting to about 43 cents per head, in a capitation tax.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS. The inhabitants of Virginia are employed mostly in agricultural pursuits, and, their foreign trade being divided among several sea ports, owing to the many navigable rivers that intersect their country, they have no considerable capital.—The largest town in the state is Alexandria, situated on the Potomac, about ten miles below the city of Washington. It is a thriving commercial place, has a bank, and contains about 7000 inhabitants.—But the principal mart of foreign commerce, and the most thriving sea port in Virginia, is the borough of Norfolk; lying near the entrance of the Chesapeake, the navigation to it is always open. The inhabitants at the time of the last census were about 7000;—Richmond, which is situated on the James river, and is the present seat of government, has 5737 inhabitants. Petersburg on the Appomattox, though a place of considerable trade, has but 3521 inhabitants.—One-half of the inhabitants of all these towns, except Alexandria, are blacks or mulattoes, most of whom are slaves. And last, though not least in rank, among the cities of our Israel, is Washington, the present seat of the general government. This capital we have ranged under the cities of Virginia, though it belongs to no individual state, partly because near one-half of the district of Columbia is within the bounds of Virginia, and partly because if it ever rise to any thing but a name, its growth must be ascribed to the zeal of the men of Virginia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. It seems to have been a popular opinion in Virginia, as well as that of Mr. Jefferson, “that it is better to carry provisions and materials to manufacturers abroad, than to bring *them* to the provisions; for very few manufactures have been introduced into this state. Some articles of cotton, wool, flax, and hemp are made by the farmers for domestic use: brandy is also distilled from grain, apples and peaches. There are likewise several forges and furnaces that produce annually a considerable quantity of hollow wares, pig and bar iron. But the foreign commerce of Virginia is very extensive: the exports consist of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, hemp, lumber, tar, pitch, turpentine, peltry, pork, flaxseed, &c. which in the year 1802 amounted to 4,660,361

dollars, though this is hardly equal to their exports before the war, the relative prices of the articles considered. Their imports from the neighbouring states and from foreign markets, are at least of equal value, as they always remain largely in debt.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. It seems to be the concurrent opinion of all accurate observers, that a sensible change has taken place in all the climates of the western hemisphere; "snow, which was formerly frequent, deep, and of longer continuance, particularly on the eastward of the great range of mountains in this state, seldom lies more than one, two or three days; and rivers which seldom failed to freeze over in the course of the winter, scarcely ever do so now."—In the same parallels of latitude, as you advance from the coast towards the mountains, the air grows colder, and from thence westward the change is reversed, the air becoming warmer.—The changes from heat to cold are sudden and great, the mercury in Farenheit's thermometer having been known to vary 45° in thirteen hours. By observations made at Williamsburgh during the course of several years, the extremes have been from 98° to 6° below 0: but these very distant extremes are rare occurrences, as the medial heat is about 60° .—The fall of rain in one year is generally about 47 inches, and the exhalation commensurate. But on the whole, the climate of this state may be styled temperate, as the fig, pomegranate, artichoke, and European walnut are cultivated here, subject however to be killed by extreme frost.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. The soil of this state resembles that of Maryland in a great degree. The campaign is sandy, interspersed with bottoms of a rich productive mould. As you approach the south mountain, and beyond it to the westward, to a great extent, the soil is not unlike the western parts of Pennsylvania. Here it consists of clay, loam, and sand, variously intermixed, and produces all the most valuable grains. Near the mouths of the rivers, the banks are composed chiefly of a strong black mould, which, with proper cultivation, would yield the most luxuriant crops. But on the whole, the state of agriculture in Virginia is many years behind that of Pennsylvania, owing to the multitude of slaves, and the almost universal use of the hoe, for many years, instead of the plough.

MOUNTAINS. Vast ranges of mountains pierce through the western part of this state, nearly in a N. E. and S. W. direction. The first that presents itself to notice is the blue ridge, the highest peak of which is about 4000 feet from its base; next beyond this ridge is the North mountain, sometimes called the Endless mountain from its great length; and this is followed by the Allegheny, that vast ridge which is called the back bone of the United States, and serves to divide the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Mississippi. The western branches of this great ridge are the Laurel and Cumberland mountains, which stretch to the western confines of the state.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. There are many medicinal plants, the natives of Virginia; as the snake-roots, the valerian, gentian, ginseng, senna, palma christi, mallows of several species, &c. In forest trees there is no difference from the productions of Pennsylvania worth noticing. Wheat, hemp, flax, cotton, and tobacco are staple commodities: rye, barley, oats, buck wheat and Indian corn are cultivated largely; and the orchards produce apples, peaches, pears, plums, &c.—A great number of excellent cattle are driven annually from the western counties of this state to the markets of Baltimore and Philadelphia, the climate and extensive ranges being propitious to their propagation and sustenance. Nor must we omit the breed of handsome horses, originally from England, which engage the peculiar attention of the Virginia sportsmen.—The mines of Virginia are pretty numerous. One of the richest mineral productions is the coal mines; that near Richmond on James river, yielding many thousand chaldrons every year: it is used in all the smith's shops in the sea port towns of the United States.—Lead has been discovered near the falls of the great Kenhawa, which on working has yielded 60lb. of pure metal to 100lb. of washed ore.—Specimens of copper have been exhibited.—Numerous iron mines have been worked to a great account: two in particular yield a metal fit for hollow wares that is superior to any other in the united territories.—Mineral springs are numerous, those in Berkley county have long been noted for their medicinal virtues, and are become the fashionable resort of invalids.

BAYS AND RIVERS. The Chesapeake bay is the common receptacle of all the rivers of Virginia that flow

eastward, extending from the mouth of Potomac to Cape Henry.—The principal rivers are, the James river, with its several tributary streams; this river is formed of two principal branches which meet at Columbia; that running from the north west is called the Rivanna, and the other, from the west, Fluvanna. A ship of 40 guns may sail as high as James-Town, and vessels of 125 tons within a mile of Richmond, the seat of government;—York river, which at York-Town affords the best harbour in the state for ships of the largest size, and holds four fathoms water 25 miles higher: at the confluence of its two branches the Pamunkey, and the Mattapony, it is reduced to two fathoms depth;—Rappahannock, which affords four fathoms water to Hobb's-hole, and two fathoms thence to Fredericksburgh;—and Potomac, which is $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide at its mouth, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ at Alexandria, with three fathoms water, and thence 10 feet to the falls, about 13 miles above Alexandria. Most of these rivers, with several other smaller streams, are boatable to the very foot of the mountains.

NORTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. North Carolina is situated between $33^{\circ} 50'$ and $36^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and the longitude of 1° and 8° west from Philadelphia, or between 76° and 84° west from London, containing a surface of 50,000 square miles, equal to about 30,000,000 of acres in round numbers. It is bounded on the east by the Atlantic, on the north by Virginia, on the west by Tennessee, and on the south by South Carolina.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The savage tribes that were the original proprietors of North Carolina were probably very numerous: but the most noted were the Chovannoos with their allies the Nottaways, Meherrins and

Tutiles, on the east; and the Corees, Tuscaroras and Cherokees, on the west. The first Europeans seated in this country were a colony of Germans from the banks of the Rhine, who were driven from their homes by the exterminating brigades of France.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. In 1710. This colony was settled by the proprietors of South Carolina (of which it was then a part) with an allowance of 100 acres of land for every man, woman and child, free of quit rent for the first ten years.

1712. It was almost exterminated by the Corees and Tuscaroras, but was rescued from total destruction by a re-inforcement sent seasonably from Charleston. The war carried into the Indian country; great slaughter among the Tuscaroras, and a remnant of the tribe obliged to remove to the Ohio. About this time Cape Fear river (in N. C.) was a noted rendezvous of pirates.

1717. The pirates extirpated from Cape Fear by the brave conduct of Captain Rhett in a government ship.

1728. Seven out of eight of the proprietors of Carolina sold their rights to the crown: upon which Carolina was divided into North and South, and both erected into royal governments.

1740. One-eighth of the proprietaryship which was retained by Lord Carteret, was laid off, and described as extending from the latitude of $35^{\circ} 34'$ to the southern bound of Virginia, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, comprehending great part of the state of N. C.

1749. The inhabitants estimated at 45,000 souls.

1751. The society of *United Brethren* purchased of Lord Granville 100,000 acres of land, in Surry county, which they denominated Wachovia. It is now, 1804, a populous settlement, filled with villages, and well cultivated farms.

Three delegates appointed to meet the first general Congress at Philadelphia, August 25, 1774.

State Constitution framed December 18, 1776. Federal Constitution ratified November 21, 1789, by 193 to 75 votes.

RELIGION. Before the American revolution more than one half of the inhabitants of North Carolina were of the church of England, this sect having founded and peopled most of the sea port towns. After the declaration of independence, these were obliged either to abjure their al-

legiance to Great Britain, or to desert their homes; many of them chose the latter, and all the clergy, one or two ministers excepted. It is probable most of the livings were sequestered, for there is hardly a single Episcopal congregation existing in the maritime towns. A numerous body of people in this part of the state live without any of the external acts of religion, except where the Presbyterians or methodists have collected the scattered sheep of the episcopal fold.—These sects are numerous throughout the state, the former possessing several of the western counties almost entirely.—The settlement of Moravians, as we have already observed, is very populous, and distinguishable for decorum and piety.—The Friends have likewise several congregations, seated in Guilford and the adjacent counties.—There are also some Baptists.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The constitution of North Carolina seems to have been cast in the same mould as those of Maryland and Virginia, with a small variation in some of the minute members.—The governor is chosen annually by the *assembly*, and may be re-elected three years out of seven. He must be 30 years of age, and possess a freehold worth 1000*l.* currency. For misconduct in office he may be prosecuted, either by impeachment of the general assembly, or a presentment from the grand jury. He has a council of seven appointed annually by the assembly, with whom he is obliged to consult: with their concurrence he may lay embargoes, or prohibit the exportation of provisions for 30 days. He has also a power to grant pardons, except for offences prosecuted by the assembly, in which cases he may reprieve till their next session; during which interval he has also a power of appointing to any vacant office. In case of absence or disqualification, the speaker of the senate, or of the house of commons, executes the office of governor.—The legislature, styled the general assembly, is elected annually by the people, and consists of two branches, a senate of 60 members, and a commons house of double the number.—A senator must have a freehold of 300 acres of land; a member of the commons of 100 acres; and both must have been residents one year, prior to their election.—The assembly possess all the powers of legislation; they appoint the governor, lieutenant-governor, council, judiciary and militia officers, the trea-

suror and secretary of the state.—All freemen of full age, who have paid taxes and resided one year, have a right to vote for the house of commons; but the electors of the senate must be freeholders.—The judiciary hold their commissions during good behaviour, with “adequate salaries during their continuance in office.”—None but Protestants are admitted to office.—The state sends to the general congress 2 senators, and 12 representatives: senators are appointed by a joint ballot of both houses, representatives elected by a plurality of the people in districts.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The state is divided into eight districts, containing 58 counties, and 478,000 souls (about one third slaves) according to the enumeration of 1800. The militia are estimated at 50,000 men. The population is about 14 persons to a square mile. White males 174,648, females 166,116. White persons under 16 years 175,139, above 162,625; of 45 years and upwards 36,202.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. In the maritime counties of this commonwealth, the language and the general state of society have a strong resemblance with those of the ancient parts of Virginia. More than one-third part of the inhabitants are slaves, who perform all the labour of the farms and the families, while the whites have little or nothing to do. The men waste their time in drinking, gambling, horse racing or cockfighting, with an exception of those who are engaged in commerce, the mechanic employments, or some of the learned professions. These vices have increased greatly since the American revolution, and most in those settlements where the clergy were obliged to desert their flocks; where religious worship is almost suspended; and where the Sundays are perverted to noise and revelry.—The western parts of the state have been planted by people of a different description, by a colony from the north of Ireland; by industrious Germans; and by emigrants from Jersey and Pennsylvania; here slaves are less numerous, and the public duties of religion are respected and observed.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. This state is not distinguished by the fame of its literary institutions; yet education has not been wholly neglected. There is an act of assembly, and funds appropriated for the establishment of an university, and another act of recent date for the sup-

port of public schools throughout the state. Academies are supported at Salisbury, Newbern and Hillsborough, under the care of some respectable tutors.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS. There is no considerable town in North Carolina: we shall mention the principal.—New Bern, situated at the confluence of the Neuse and the Trent is the largest, and has 2467 inhabitants. The private houses are built of wood, the palace, the Episcopal church, and the gaol, of bricks. The palace is a handsome edifice, and was the residence of the governors before the revolution.—Wilmington is built on a branch of Cape Fear river, about 30 miles from the ocean, and was almost destroyed by a conflagration in the year 1786: inhabitants, 1689.—Fayette, on the same stream, about 100 miles above Wilmington, contains 1656 inhabitants.—Edenton, on Albemarle sound, has 1322 inhabitants.—And Raleigh, an inland town, in Wake county, which is noticed only because the state has chosen it for the seat of government.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The state is not deficient in iron mines, from which they manufacture bar iron and hollow ware for domestic use. Every farmer has a field of cotton, which he cleans, spins and weaves for the consumption of his family.—Great part of the exports of this state are carried through Virginia and South Carolina: they consist chiefly of tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, shingles, tobacco, furs, pork, bees wax, &c. amounting in the year 1802, to 650,000 dollars.—Almost the whole shore of North Carolina is faced with a dangerous sand bank, affording only a few narrow inlets to its principal sea port towns, and these are navigable only by small vessels.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The low sandy ground which extends nearly 100 miles from the sea shore, and the numerous undrained marshes in the lower part of this state, together with extreme heat and abundant exhalations, produce annually an exuberant crop of bilious and intermittent fevers; this is indicated by the sallow complexion of the common people. Not more than one person to ten according to the last enumeration had reached the age of 45; whereas in the New-England states the proportion of this age is generally about 15 to 100. This then is not the

habitation for those who wish to rival old Parr or Jenkins in health and longevity.—But there is not a finer climate within the extensive limits of the United States than the western counties of North Carolina; here the country is intersected by a range of mountains, and diversified by hill and dale; nor is the cold intense enough to oblige the farmer to fold his cattle in winter.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. Great part of the sea coast of North Carolina, as we have observed, is covered with barren forests, with here and there a glade of rich land. The banks of the rivers are more uniformly fertile, and are generally well cultivated. But the higher lands on the east side of the mountains, and a very extensive tract on the west, are the pride of this state, abounding with a strong and productive soil. In these districts, wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, repay the farmer for his labour by plentiful crops.—Cotton, Indian corn and pulse are cultivated every where through the state, being consumed principally in the aliment and cloathing of its inhabitants, and may be termed the staple articles of North Carolina.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. The towering pitch-pine is the most conspicuous tree in the plains of North Carolina, though it produces also the red and the white oak, both well adapted for staves, and the swamps abound with the funereal cypress and the bay.—The native timber of the western counties is the walnut, oak, locust, elm, linn, wild cherry, and plum trees: grapes, strawberries, raspberries, as well as some medicinal plants, such as ginseng, snakeroot, &c. are found in almost every district.—Among the domestic animals most deserving of notice, are the numerous herds of cattle, that are bred and live through the year in these extensive forests, whence they are collected and sold in large numbers to the northern drovers.—The principal mineral wealth of this state are its iron mines, unless we include the medicinal springs of Warren, Rockingham, and some other places that are famed for their healing virtues, and the resort of the invalid.

MOUNTAINS. The principal ridge that runs through N. Carolina, is called the Apalachian mountain, a name derived from the Apalaches, a nation once very numerous, and appears to be only another local name for the Allegheny

mountains, being a portion of the same lofty ridge, that extends from the Mississippi to the St. Lawrence.

SWAMPS. But we must not omit the swamps of this state; of which there are two very remarkable: one called the *Green Swamp*, near the southern line, and the other, with emphatic propriety, called the *Great Dismal*, which covers more than 500 square miles, embosoms several lakes, and communicates with Alligator river and Albemarle sound.

RIVERS AND SOUNDS. The sounds are arms of the sea formed by the continent and a chain of sand banks, stretched in front of this state almost its whole length. The most noted are those of Albemarle and Pamlico: the first extends 60 miles from the ocean into the land, with a medial breadth of 10 miles, and receives the waters of the Roanoke and Meherrin rivers: the other stretches along the shore one hundred miles, with a various breadth, from 10 to 30 miles, and receives the Pamlico and Neuse rivers.—The only stream deserving notice besides these is Cape Fear river. This is the most navigable water in the state of North Carolina, and was known at an early date as the rendezvous of pirates. The two branches of which it is formed, after running through a fertile country, unite a little above Wilmington, thirty miles from Cape Fear. So far it is navigable by pretty large vessels, and on the north-west branch it is boatable 90 miles, to the town of Fayetteville.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. South Carolina is situated between 32° and 35° N. latitude, and the longitude of 4° and 9° W. of Philadelphia, or 78° and 83° W. of London, and contains about 20,000 square miles, equal to about 13,000,000 of acres. Its bounds are, the Atlantic ocean, on the east; North Carolina, on the north; and the river

Savannah, which separates it from Georgia and Tennessee, on the west and south west.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The most noted among the Indian tribes who were the original proprietors of this country, were the Stonoes and Westoes, the Sarannas, the Apalaches, Congarees, Esaws and Yamassees, on the east and in the centre, who are now either extinct or mingled with other tribes; and the Catawbias, Creeks and Cherokees, on the west, who still retain their name, and a local habitation on the frontiers of the state. The ancestors of the present inhabitants were a mixture of many European nations, but the first adventurers came from Great Britain. Under the auspices and at the expense of that government was the colony founded.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1662. Patent granted by king Charles II. to Lord Clarendon and seven other noblemen for the province of Carolina, extending from 29° to $36^{\circ} 31' N.$ lat. and from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean.

1669. The first colony under Gov. Sayle, seated themselves at the place now called Charleston. The first embarkation cost the proprietors 12,000*l.* sterling.

1672. A constitution framed by the celebrated John Lock. The Spaniards attempt to destroy the colony, but finding it in a state of defence retreat to St. Augustine without doing any thing.

1674. A price given for Indian prisoners, who are sold as slaves to the West-India planters.

1682. The government endeavours to restrain the iniquitous practice, and to regulate the trade with the natives, but are opposed by some of the leading planters. The practice continues.

1690. The people dissatisfied with the proprietors, but most with paying quit rents. They banish their governor, and raise one of their own faction to the office. About this time rice was accidentally introduced by a brigantine from Madagascar; and to cultivate it slaves were found necessary.

1696. Episcopal clergy established in Charleston, with a house, glebe, and perpetual salary.

1699. A hurricane, which raised the sea in Charleston as high as the second story of their houses.

1702. Paper currency first emitted by law. Culture of cotton introduced.

1706. Dissenters petition the house of Lords for relief from the oppressions of the Episcopal church. Charleston attacked by a combined army of French and Spaniards, who are repulsed by militia.

1712. A public bank established, and bills issued to the amount of 45,000*l.* by which the price of produce was raised 150 per cent. in twelve months.

1714. A war with the Yamassees instigated by the Spaniards. Gov. Craven offers a reward of 5*l.* for every Spanish prisoner, to prevent his being butchered by the Indians.

1720. In consequence of a series of disorders, the charter of the proprietors declared to be forfeited, and the colony erected into a royal government. Whites 14,000, Negroes and Indians 20,000.

1728. Summer remarkably dry and hot, followed in the fall by a hurricane, which levelled thousands of trees, and drove 23 ships ashore.

1737. The Spaniards incite the slaves to run away, give them arms, and march them to Charleston to cut the throats of their heretical masters. A general insurrection among the slaves.

1740. An expedition against Florida, which proved abortive. A fire destroys 300 houses at Charleston. Parliament grants 20,000*l.* to the sufferers.

1742. The slaves out-number their masters 3 to 1. The Carolinians apply to the crown for 3 independent companies to defend them against their own slaves.

1745. Indigo found to be a native plant, and first cultivated: a bounty of 6*d.* per lb. granted by parliament.

1752. Summer extremely hot: in the fall a hurricane from N. E. water rose 10 feet above high water mark; city overflowed and filled with the wrecks of ships, and houses.

1754. Imports 200,000*l.* sterling. Exports 104,682 bbls. of rice; of indigo 216,924 lbs. Total value 242,500*l.* sterling.

1756. War with the Cherokees, which was continued till 1761.

1761. A whirlwind in May that laid the channel of Ashley river bare; swept the loftiest trees before it like chaff; sunk five vessels that were at anchor in the road, and dismasted eleven others.

1771. Charleston exported produce to the amount of 756,000*l.* sterling.

RELIGION. Among the early settlers of Carolina, the Presbyterians were the most numerous, and they still hold their full proportion of the population. The Episcopal Church, which was long the established religion of the colony, may be reckoned next in number. There are many congregations of Baptists and Methodists, and but very few of any other religious society. All religions equally participate in civil rights and privileges, and each elects and maintains its own teachers only.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The legislative power of the state is vested in a general assembly, consisting of two branches, a senate and house of representatives, both elected by the people: the former contains 37 members, and are chosen for four years, with a biennial rotation of one half: the latter, 124 members, and are elected for two years, which is a distinguishing feature in the constitution of this state. The qualifications of a senator are, the age of 30 years, a residence in the state five years prior to his election, a freehold worth 300*l.* if he inhabit the district, and 1000*l.* if he reside out of it. The qualifications of a representative, full age, a residence of three years, 500 acres of land, and 10 slaves, or any freehold valued at 150*l.* if he reside in the district, if he reside elsewhere in the state, a freehold worth 500*l.*—The representatives originate money bills, and possess the power of impeaching;—the senate try impeachments;—to impeach, or convict, the concurrence of two-thirds of the members is required. In other respects the powers of both houses are equal.—Conjointly they elect the governor, lieutenant-governor and council. They appoint judges, commissioners of the treasury, secretary of state, and surveyor-general, and possess all the privileges that are common to a legislative assembly.—The executive authority is lodged in a governor, or lieutenant-governor, with a council of nine members of whom the lieutenant-governor is one.—They are elected for two years, and may be rechosen after an in-

terval of four.—The qualifications requisite in a governor as well as lieutenant-governor are, the age of 30 years, a residence in the state of ten years, and an estate worth 1500*l*. sterling.—He is commander in chief of the militia when not called into the service of the United States: he may remit fines and forfeitures, except when restricted by a special law: grant reprieves or pardons, except in cases of impeachment; and embargo provisions for thirty days.—Agreeably to the constitution the judges hold their commissions during good behaviour, and their salaries, as well as that of governor, are unalterable during their terms of office.—Every free white man has a right to vote at elections, who is of full age, has resided two years in the state, and six months in the district, and has paid a tax there to the amount of three shillings.—By a particular law of this state, the evidence of a slave cannot be taken against a white man, and if a master kill a slave, he is punishable only by a pecuniary mulct, or an imprisonment of one year.—Representation in general Congress, two senators, and eight representatives. Senators appointed by a joint ballot of both houses; representatives elected in districts by plurality of the people.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The latest division of this state has been into districts, of which there are 23 in number; and these are subdivided into counties and parishes. The number of inhabitants in 1800 was 345,591 (one-third slaves) which gives about 17 persons to a square mile. Increase in 10 years 105,518, equal to a duplication in $22\frac{3}{4}$ years. White males 100,916. Females 95,339. White persons under 16 years 184,088; above 92,167; of 45 years and upwards 19,681. The militia may be estimated about 50,000 men.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. Here as well as in every other country where it has prevailed largely, slavery has produced its peculiar train of vices, pride, indolence and cruelty. The Carolinians, those I mean in the maritime parts, are nevertheless remarkable for their polished and agreeable manners, and their unaffected hospitality to strangers. Among the higher classes the pleasures of society are cultivated eagerly, but gaming, that inlet of numerous crimes, is generally discouraged. Hunting and horse racing are favourite sports among men of fortune. Youth are introduced early into company, and many of them discover a happy and natural quickness of appre-

hension, but want that perseverance and steadiness that are requisite in arduous pursuits. The ladies, particularly those of Charleston, have been distinguished for their elegant accomplishments, as well as for their easy, engaging manners.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. Before the American war there was a society of the most respectable citizens of Charleston incorporated for the promotion of literature. They had made a considerable collection of books, &c. for the use of the company, and were forming a fund for the erection of a college, but the war put a stop to the design. This seminary was intended to remove the necessity of sending youth to Europe to complete their education, which had long been the common practice in wealthy families, and is the case still in a considerable degree. However there are at present several colleges and academies in this state, though none of very extensive fame. The colleges most known are those of Charleston, Winnsborough, Cambridge, and Beaufort, and in these as well as several other places there are academies, and other private schools. The college of South Carolina, for which 50,000 dollars has been allotted to erect the necessary buildings, at the seat of government, together with 6000 dollars per annum for the support of tutors, is a recent institution, hardly completed.

REVENUES AND EXPENCES. The annual income of this wealthy and flourishing state must be considerable: but the manner in which taxes are assessed and collected, renders it difficult to ascertain the sum total. It is derived principally from a tax on lands and negroes, and a duty on certain goods imported. That on lands, is regulated by their current value, which is estimated from six pounds to one shilling per acre; and on this valuation the tax generally imposed, is one per centum.—The annual expenditure is about 70,000 dollars, in round numbers, which is about 35 cents per head on the free inhabitants.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS. The principal town in South Carolina, and which till lately was the seat of government, is Charleston, situated at the confluence of Ashley and Cooper rivers, about six miles above Sullivan's island. It is built with great regularity. The streets lying east and west run in a straight line from river to river, and are furnished with subterranean drains, for removing

nuisances, &c. These are intersected by others, nearly at right angles, which divide the town into a number of handsome squares.—The houses are chiefly built of bricks, and many of them very elegant.—The public edifices are an exchange, a state-house, a bank, an armory, and a public alms-house, with ten or a dozen places of religious worship.—The tide rises from six to ten feet perpendicular, at the wharves, and vessels drawing 17 feet water may pass the bar.—At the time of last enumeration the inhabitants were 18,824, nearly one half slaves.—There are two banks of discount and deposit in the city, besides a branch of that of the United States.—The other principal towns are George-Town, which contains about 2000 inhabitants; it is a sea port, and has about 10 or 12 feet water; and Beaufort or Port-Royal island an inconsiderable place.—The seat of government is Columbia, a town of recent date, distant from Charleston about 100 miles, and situated on the river Congaree, just below the junction of its two branches, the Broad river with the Saluda.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The principal manufacture is that of indigo: but in the middle and the upper country the planters and farmers manufacture a considerable part of their coarse cotton cloths, and some of the woollen. On the sea board the inhabitants are clothed principally with foreign merchandise.—The foreign trade of this state is very considerable, as it abounds in articles which meet a ready sale in Europe, and manufactures but little for its own consumption.—The exports consist chiefly of rice, indigo, tobacco, furs, peltry, tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, lumber, staves, Indian corn, soal leather, reeds and Carolina pink-root.—The articles imported are flour, bread, cheese, salted fish, potatoes, onions, oats, porter, beer, and cyder, from the northern states; and from foreign markets, rum, sugar, coffee, cocoa, tea, brandy, wine, gin, and a great variety of package goods from Great Britain and other nations. The balance of trade is generally in favour of the state.

Amount of exports in 1771, was 756,000 <i>l</i> . sterling, equal to	-	-	-	-	-	3,360,000 dollars,
-	-	-	in 1791	-	-	2,693,267
-	-	-	in 1802	-	-	10,690,000

Vessels that sailed from Charleston 1787, were 947, measuring 62,118 tons.—In 1801, there were 1243 pleasure carriages in the state that paid duty.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of the low country of South Carolina can hardly be styled temperate, although it is near the middle of the temperate zone. In summer, the air is warm in the extreme, sultry and suffocating; in winter dry and sometimes piercing cold, though snow is very rare. The effluvia from a great mass of stagnant water in all seasons of the year, renders the air near the sea humid and unelastic, and of course unpropitious to health. The fall is accounted the most unhealthy part of the year in the flooded rice grounds, therefore the wealthy planters mostly retire to the city in that season. Thunder storms are frequent from April to October, and often very tremendous. At Charleston, five houses, two churches, and five ships were struck by lightning on the same day. The greatest variation observed by Fahrenheit's thermometer has been from 101° to 10° in the shade.

The mean diurnal heat 64° in Spring, 79° Summer, 72° Autumn, 52° Winter.
 Nocturnal 56 75 68 46

The annual fall of water (taking the mean of six years) is nearly $47\frac{1}{2}$ inches: the greatest fall in 12 hours was 9.26 inches. The orange, olive and peach trees sometimes blossom in the beginning of February, generally about the middle. As to the upper country, especially beyond the first ridge of mountains, it is freer from the extremes of heat and cold, and being irrigated with streams of wholesome water, is as healthful a region as any part of the U. States.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. On the plains of South Carolina, the soil is generally sandy, interspersed with marshes, and ground that is occasionally flooded. As you advance into the country, you find it mixed with loam and clay, till you reach the mountains, where it is agreeably diversified with hill and dale, and many extensive fertile tracts.—The staple produce of the maritime country are cotton, rice and indigo, with many of the tropical fruits, such as oranges, lemons, figs, olives, peaches, and an exuberance of the richest melons.—The interior tracts are more devoted to grain of various kinds, where they are produced in great abundance. Cattle are never housed in winter, and constitute a considerable item in the wealth of the country.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. Besides the vegetable productions already noticed as the fruits of cultivation, the forests are distinguishable for pines of superior height and quality, oak, hickory, cypress, and lau-

rel, the palmtree, beech, mulberry, dog and cherry trees: and while luxuriant vines climb to the loftiest boughs, the humbler bushes and shrubs fill up the underground.—All domestic cattle are found here in sufficient plenty.—Deer and buffaloes which formerly grazed in numerous droves through the extensive savannas of S. Carolina are now extremely rare. The alligator, a species of the crocodile, is found in the rivers and ponds. The bear, beaver, racoon and opossum, the leopard, panther, wolf, fox, wild cat, rabbit and squirrel, are indigenous quadrupeds. The country still abounds with the most venomous serpents, as the rattle-snake, viper, and horn-snake, besides many other species that are less poisonous.

MOUNTAINS. There are no mountains in this state within 200 miles of the sea, the intermediate space being an extensive plain; but the principal, and much the most elevated, lies still farther to the westward, being a part of the Allegheny or Apalachian mountain, which forms the boundary of the state in this quarter; separating the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers, and their numerous branches, from the waters that flow into the Atlantic ocean.

RIVERS AND ISLANDS. The principal rivers are the Savanna which runs the whole depth of the state, dividing it from Georgia; the Edisto; the Santee; and the Peedee; which retain their ancient Indian appellations. Through the mountainous country these streams flow with a rapid current, while in the plains they glide smoothly along till they reach the ocean. In none does the tide rise above twenty-five miles from their outlets, though most of them are navigable by boats more than double that distance.—The coast of this state is lined with numerous small islands; many of which are cultivated with great advantage, producing the finest and most exuberant crops of cotton.

GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. This state is situated between 31° and 35° of North latitude, and the longitude of 5° and $10\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ W. from Philadelphia, or 80° and $85\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ W.

from London. It is bounded on the east and north, by the Atlantic and South Carolina; on the west, by the river Catahouchee; on the south, by East Florida, and contains about 50,000 square miles, equal to 32 millions of acres.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The most memorable Indian tribes among the aborigines of Georgia are the Chickesaws, Chactaws, Creeks, Cherokees, Natches and Allibamous. A part of these retain a small portion of their ancient possessions which lie between the territories of the United States and the river Mississippi; but all of them are much diminished, and some reduced to a handful of men capable of bearing arms.—This colony was planted by a society of English gentlemen, with a view not only of extending the British empire in America, and securing Carolina from the inroads of their Spanish neighbours, but to relieve the industrious poor of the old world, and to extend to the new, the inestimable benefits of religion and civilization. The province of Georgia of course received more liberal aid from the parent state than any other colony in the western hemisphere.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1732. A patent granted to a corporation of 21 persons, for settling a new colony between Carolina and the Spanish dominions in Florida. In the same year general Ogelthorpe embarks with 117 fellow passengers, passage being paid and necessaries furnished to a large amount; they land at the place afterwards called Savanna; purchase a tract of land of the Creek Indians; and lay the foundation of their first settlement in an act of justice.

1734. Additional aid of 36,000*l.* sterling granted by parliament; 130 Highlanders settled at New Inverness on the Alatomaha; followed, in the same year, by 170 Germans who were seated in another part of the province.

1735. The English parliament granted 10,000*l.* sterling to erect fortifications. Georgia fortified by general Ogelthorpe.

1737. Small progress made in cultivation, which the Georgians attribute to the want of slaves to work for them; though it was expressly stipulated in the original contract that no slaves should be introduced into the colony. Ogelthorpe's regiment sent from England to defend the colony.

The Spaniards corrupt the soldiers, and cause them to mutiny against their general.

1740. Whitefield's orphan house founded, for the education of poor children.

1742. Georgia invaded by the Spaniards, the people of Carolina refuse to assist their neighbours; defended by Oglethorpe's regiment, with the assistance of the militia, and the Spaniards repulsed.

1747. A clergyman (named Bosomworth) who had married a woman of the Creek nation, pretended to govern the country in her right, and to dispossess the English settlers.

1752. The trustees surrender their charter to the crown.

1763. The colony began to flourish.

1773. Exports amounted to 121,677*l.* sterling.

1788. January 2d, The federal constitution ratified unanimously.

1798. May 30th, State constitution revised and amended.

RELIGION. Though the propagation of religion was a leading motive with the generous founders of this colony, and it partook largely, during its infancy, of the zealous labours of George Whitefield and his disciples, this important interest is at a low ebb, at least in the old settlements. The pursuits of trade, agriculture, politics and land speculations engross the principal attention: there are nevertheless some serious people in the western country, of the Baptist, Presbyterian and Methodist societies; and in Savannah, Augusta, and a few other towns, there are edifices for public worship, supported by several religious societies, where the forms, at least, of religion, are preserved. By the constitution of the state, all christian sects partake equally in the rights and privileges of citizens.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The government of this, like that of most of the other states, consists of three departments, executive, legislative, and judiciary. But in all the states that are on the south of the Susquehanna, this division of authority is little more than a shadow, for most of the essential powers are confided to the legislative branch: it appoints, and can remove the other two, *ad libitum*, by impeachments; and we have only to look to some recent examples to know where these originate, and how they are managed.—Agreeably to the constitution as revised and

amended May 1798, the governor is elected by the general assembly biennially, and is re-eligible ; the age of 30 years, a residence of 6 years in the state, and 12 in the United States, a freehold of 500 acres, or other property worth 4000 dollars, being the qualifications required.—He has a negative on laws, unless two-thirds of both houses concur to enact; he may grant pardons, except in cases of impeachment, treason, or murder, in which he may respite execution till next session of assembly; and he may appoint to vacant offices, ad interim.—There is no lieutenant-governor or council.—The general assembly is composed of two chambers, a senate consisting of 23 members, and representatives of 51, who are elected by the people annually.—To qualify a candidate for the senate, he must be 25 years of age, possess a freehold worth 500 dollars, or other estate worth one thousand, and have resided in the state three years, and in the United States nine years: for a representative, the age of 21 years, a residence of three years in the state, and seven in the United States, and a freehold of 250 acres, or other estate worth 500 dollars.—Conjointly they appoint governor, judges, secretary, treasurer, and surveyor-general, (all of them except the judges, for two years) attorney and solicitor general, for three years, and all the general officers of the militia.—The judges of the supreme court are appointed for three years, and inferior judges during good behaviour.—Justices of peace are nominated by the inferior courts.—The courts of law are, a superior court, which has exclusive jurisdiction in all criminal cases, and disputes about the titles of land. The county courts decide on inferior controversies. A single judge sits in the superior court to determine the most important causes, and often exercises the power of a chancellor.—All white males, 21 years of age, who have resided six months in the state, and paid taxes therein, have the right of voting at elections, which is performed *viva voce*.—The state sends two senators and four representatives to congress. Senators are appointed by a joint ballot of the two branches: representatives by a plurality of the people at large.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. Georgia was formerly divided into parishes; it is now parcelled into counties, of which the number was twenty-four at the period of the last enumeration, and the total of inhabitants 162,686

(about $3\frac{1}{4}$ to a square mile) of whom more than one-third were slaves; white males 53,968, females 52,187; white persons under 16 years to those above, as 54 to 51: of 45 years and upwards as $8\frac{3}{4}$ to 100. Increase in ten years was 80,138, which is very near a duplication in the same time, owing to extraordinary emigrations.—In a recent report returned to congress, the militia was estimated at 16,154 men.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGES. Georgia was peopled from its infancy by men of several nations and languages, though the main and governing part was English. Those of the same nation who settled together in the same parish or county, still retain a few distinct shades of original character; but a gradual assimilation is taking place. From the influence of climate, and a resemblance in their domestic economy, with those of the other southern states already described, we cannot suppose that there is any great diversity in the general mass. The wealthy planters, who own numerous families of slaves, study ease and luxury, and dissipate a part of their affluence in acts of hospitality, and the pleasures of society. Cards, horse-racing, cock-fighting, and among the more active, the chace for which Georgia is well adapted, are favourite amusements. But land speculations, though not peculiar to this state, have been pursued with uncommon avidity, which has forced the government to some very extraordinary measures in order to limit their extension.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. As it is but about 40 years since Georgia rose above the first great difficulties of planting a wilderness, it cannot be justly expected that education has long had a share of its attention; but schools have latterly become the subject of legislative provision. A valuable fund in lands has been appropriated to support one university in the state, as well as an academy in every county where the population would admit of it; and that this extensive plan might be executed with energy, the legislature has instituted a board of literary men, to superintend and animate the whole. So that there is a prospect Georgia will in a few years rival some of the older states in cultivating the variegated fields of science.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS. There are not many towns in Georgia, that deserve to be noticed in a geographical epitome. The principal is Savanna, situated near

the mouth of the river Savanna, formerly the seat of government, and still the principal seat of its foreign commerce; it is built with some regularity, contains a courthouse, and four or five places of religious worship, and in the year 1800 enumerated 5146 inhabitants, nearly one-half slaves.—Augusta stands about a hundred miles higher up the river, and has 2215 inhabitants, above 1000 of whom are slaves.—Sunbury, Brunswick and Frederica, are sea port towns, with good harbours, but possess inconsiderable foreign trade.—And Louisville, named in honour of the king of France, is situated on the river Ogechee, about 70 miles from the sea, in the centre of a fertile country, and is honoured as the seat of government.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. In a state where land is cheap, where so much remains to be cultivated, and when there is a ready market for all its principal productions, there cannot be many considerable manufactures.—The principal are indigo, and the powder of sago; but the commerce bears a full proportion with the number of inhabitants, and increases rapidly. The exports which in 1763, were but 27,021*l.* sterling, had increased in 1773 to 121,677*l.* equal to 540,787 dollars, and in 1802 had swelled to 1,854,951 dollars. These exports consist of cotton, rice, indigo, tobacco, peltry, furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, Indian corn, and various other articles. In return for these they receive the wines and manufactures of Europe, as well as the productions of the East and West Indies.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate and seasons of Georgia, differ but little from those of South Carolina. Being a few degrees nearer the equator, the summers are longer, and more fit to bring the tropical fruits to maturity. By the observations of Governor Ellis, the mercury stood at 102° in the shade, on the 7th of July; it had risen twice to the same height; several times to 100°; and for many days together it stood at 98°, settling at 89° in the night. The inhabitants of Savanna, as the same author supposed, breathe as hot an air as any people on earth; but the town, being situated on a sand hill, is better ventilated, and of course, more healthy than the low ground that surrounds it.—The variations in winter have sometimes been very remarkable. The mercury has been observed to be as high as 86° on the 10th of December, and has fallen as low as 38° on the 11th; it ranges generally from 76° to 90° in summer, and

from 40° to 60° in winter. Such sudden changes in the weather, joined to the brackish quality of the water, and the general humidity of the air, cannot fail to render the plains of Georgia unhealthy; but the western country, being a much higher region, broken with mountains, and irrigated with streams of wholesome water, is equal to any portion of the United States.

SOIL, AGRICULTURE, ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. In these articles Georgia differs so little from South Carolina, that to describe them would be an unpleasant repetition.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS AND ISLANDS. The only conspicuous ridge that pervades this state, is the southern extremity of the Apalachian or Allegheny mountain, which with its various ramifications extends from the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi.—Beginning in the north, the first river that presents itself to notice, is the Savanna, which divides this state from South Carolina. Its principal branches rise in the ridge above noticed, and after running in a S. E. direction through the state, discharges into the ocean a few miles below the metropolis.—To the south ward flows the Ogechee, a more inconsiderable stream;—and next, the Alatamaha, a long and noble river, but obstructed at its outlet by sand banks, which divide it into several branches.—Lastly, St. Mary's river, which bounds the territories of the United States in this quarter, from the colonies of Spain, and joins the ocean at Amelia sound.—The coast of this state is lined with several small islands, which contain some of its richest lands, producing indigo, Indian corn, sweet potatoes, as well as cotton of the finest quality; and being esteemed more healthy than the continent, afford agreeable retreats to many of the inhabitants in the sickly months.

KENTUCKY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. This state which was formerly a part of Virginia, and ceded to congress in 1792, is situated between $36\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and $39\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ N. latitude, and between

8° and 15° W. longitude from Philadelphia, or from 83° to 90° W. from the meridian of London. It contains 40,000 square miles, and is bounded on the E. by Sandy river, and a line running due south from its head waters to North Carolina; on the N. by the river Ohio; on the W. by the Ohio and Cumberland rivers; and on the S. by an imaginary line in the middle of the 36° of N. latitude, dividing it from the state of Tennessee.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. From the earliest accounts we have of this country, it was long the subject of dispute, as well as the scene of bloody conflicts between several Indian tribes, and was therefore called by them the "dark and bloody grounds." That part which lies north of the river Kentucky was probably claimed by the Five Nations, and that on the south by the Cherokees.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. 1754. Kentucky visited by James M^cBride, who explored part of the country, and at the mouth of Kentucky river, marked a tree with the initials of his name.

1769. Explored farther by Colonel Boone of North Carolina, in company with other persons. All except Boone, either perished or were dispersed, he remaining in the country alone till the year 1771, when he returned to Carolina.

1773. First permanent settlement made by Boone and five or six other families from Powell's Valley in North Carolina. This gave umbrage to the Indians, as an infraction of the treaty of 1768, made between them and the English, by which this ground had been particularly reserved for hunting.

1775. About this time Colonel Donaldson, in behalf of the province of Virginia, purchased of the Five Nations for a specific sum in specie, all that part of Kentucky which lies between the great Kanhaway and Kentucky rivers.

In the same year Colonel Henderson (of North Carolina) purchased of the Cherokees, the other moiety of Kentucky, that lies on the south of Kentucky river, which he afterwards conveyed to the province (or the state) of Virginia.

1792. The inhabitants formed a constitution for their own government, and were admitted into the confederacy as an independent state.

1799. State constitution revised and amended.

RELIGION. The most numerous Christian sect is that of the Baptists, who in the year 1787 had sixteen established congregations in this state. The Presbyterians and Methodists are next in point of number, and there are some Episcopalians: but there exists no distinction whatever with respect to civil rights.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The executive authority is vested in a governor, who is elected by the people, once in four years, and is ineligible for the next seven. The only qualifications required, are a residence in the state six years prior to election, and the age of 35 years. He has authority to grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; and to negative bills unless a majority of both houses should concur. He appoints sheriffs, by selecting one out of two persons recommended, in each county, by the county courts; and, with the concurrence of the senate he appoints justices of the peace, and all other officers not otherwise designated by the constitution.—In case of vacancy his office is executed by a lieutenant-governor who is always the speaker of the senate.—The legislature, which is styled the general assembly, consists of two branches, viz. a senate of 11 members elected by the people quadrennially, subject to an annual renovation of one-fourth; and a house of representatives of 40 members chosen annually.—A senator must have resided in the state 6 years prior to his election, and be 35 years of age:—a representative, two years, and be 24 years of age.—The senate has a voice with the governor, in most of his appointments, and they try impeachments.—The representatives originate money bills, impeach, and recommend sheriffs, coroners and justices of the peace in all the new counties.—The state treasurer is appointed by a concurrent vote of both houses. The judges of the superior and inferior courts are appointed by the governor and senate, during good behaviour, and are removable by impeachment, or complaint of two thirds of the assembly.—There are courts instituted in every county, which take cognizance of all actions in law: and a superior court, or court of appeals, co-extensive with the state, that has appellate jurisdiction only.—Every white freeman who has resided two years in the state, and one in the county, has a right to vote at elections, which is always done *viva voce*.—The state sends two senators and six representatives

to Congress. Senators appointed by a joint ballot of the two houses: representatives by a plurality of votes in districts.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. This state, which in the year 1790 contained but nine counties, and 73,677 inhabitants, at the time of the last census, enumerated forty-two counties and 220,959 inhabitants, which gives about five persons to a mile square. Of these 40,343 were slaves. The white males 93,956, females 85,915. Under sixteen years of age 99,701, above 80,170, and of 45 years and upwards as 9 to 100. As the state has been almost constantly engaged in defending itself against the surrounding Indian tribes, it can muster a large body of hardy experienced riflemen. The militia is estimated at 20,000.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. Though among the inhabitants there may be some who have fled from other states to avoid paying their just debts, and some perhaps to escape the punishment of their crimes, the great mass consists of men who have removed hither to purchase estates, and to make provision for their families, which they could not do in their native districts, and are distinguishable for youth, spirit and enterprise. The aged, the opulent, and the unambitious have remained in their native seats, endeared to them by the scenes of their youth, by a circle of connections, or by the graves of their ancestors. As the population of Kentucky has been made up by emigrations from almost every other state in the union, it must comprise a great variety of character which it would be difficult to ascertain or delineate. The luxuries and refinements of the older states are spreading rapidly in all the principal towns and settlements, with the increase of commerce and agriculture; while the rage for engrossing land has produced a multitude of law suits, and great ambiguity of titles.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. There are at least two colleges established in Kentucky, one of them was founded while it belonged to Virginia, besides a number of private schools, in all the towns and villages, to teach the elements of a common English education. Latterly professors of the ingenious arts, portrait and landscape painters, have met with considerable patronage from the wealthy. There are several printing offices in the state, and

two or three gazettes are edited weekly, at Lexington and Frankfort.

CHIEF TOWNS. In a country which was so lately a wilderness there cannot be any very considerable towns. The only ones that deserve notice are, Lexington, situated on the Elk-horn, in Fayette county, containing 1800 inhabitants, three places of religious worship, a court house, gaol, &c. Frankfort on the bank of Kentucky river, which is the seat of government, has a state house built of stone in a very decent style, and about 600 inhabitants; and Louisville on the Ohio, a place of considerable trade, a port of entry, and promises to be the principal depot of the state.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The only manufactures that deserve notice are whiskey, maple sugar, salt granulated from the salt springs by boiling, and a few coarse linen and woollen cloths for domestic consumption. The exports of the state consist of the various productions of the soil, wheat, flour, tobacco, hemp, beef, pork, lumber of various kinds, and a considerable quantity of furs and peltry, which in the year 1802 amounted to 626,673 dollars. These are conveyed down the Ohio to New Orleans, and there re-shipped to the Atlantic states, or the West India islands.—The supplies of foreign merchandise are had mostly from Philadelphia or Baltimore.—In the year 1802, a ship of 220 tons was launched at Louisville, another of 200 tons was on the stocks at the same place; and a sloop or schooner at Frankfort.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate of this interior state may be justly styled temperate. The winter commences about the solstice, and continues about seven weeks with intervals of very mild weather. Cattle generally subsist without fodder.—The mercury is seldom below 20° in Fahrenheit's thermometer. In January the creeks and brooks are commonly frozen, in some years, for a fortnight, but seldom more than three or four days. Even in this month the mercury has been observed to rise as high as 70°. At the summer solstice, and for two months ensuing, the heat is generally from 90° to 95°.—The most prevailing wind, throughout the year, is south-western, which, in summer, often produces heavy storms of rain, though without any sensible abatement of heat.—The au-

tumn is a delightful season, bringing with it three months of mild serene weather.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. In no district of the United States is the soil more diversified: some of it is too rich to produce good wheat until it has been reduced by preparatory crops of Indian corn, hemp, or tobacco. Lands thus qualified, as well as those of the second rate, will yield from twenty to thirty bushels of wheat per acre: but there are considerable tracts of an inferior kind, some that may be styled barren, others mountainous and incapable of tillage, particularly near the springs of the Kentucky and other great rivers.—The articles principally cultivated are wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, tobacco, flax and hemp, and these yield abundant crops without much labour with the plough or harrow.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. Besides all the wild and domestic animals common to the Atlantic states, Kentucky still possesses considerable herds of deers and buffaloes, bears and panthers: the waters abound with fish, some of uncommon magnitude, as the rock, the perch and catfish. The plains and the mountains are covered with the finest timber; the maple rich with a saccharine juice, the locust, the walnut, the magnolia, and the oak, the mulberry, wild cherry, coffee and cucumber tree, are found in all parts of the state, of the most luxuriant growth.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, SALT SPRINGS. The principal elevations of this state lie on the east and south-east, near the confines of Virginia: they are denominated by the inhabitants the Great Laurel and Cumberland mountains, but appear to be only spurs or branches of the Allegheny, near its southern termination.—The rivers most worthy of notice are, the Ohio which constitutes the northern boundary of the state, the Kentucky, Licking, and Green, running through it nearly from east to west, and the Cumberland which rises and unites with the Ohio within the limits of the state, but has its principal course through Tennessee.—It has been frequently observed that the streams of this country are defective at least four months of the year: the soil lying every where on a stratum of limestone, the water finds a passage to the interstices of the rock, and gradually disappears. As cultivation advances, this aridity must increase.—The salt springs, or licks as they are denominated,

of which there are several in the state, yield salt sufficient not only for the internal consumption, but to supply the neighbouring settlements with a necessary which they would otherwise be obliged to transport from the Atlantic states, at an enormous expence.

TENNESSEE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. THIS state, which was formerly a part of North Carolina, extends from 35° to $36^{\circ} 30'$ of N. latitude, and from $6\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to $16\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ W. longitude from Philadelphia, or from 82° to 92° W. from London, and is bounded on the E. by North Carolina; on the N. by Kentucky; on the W. by the river Mississippi; and on the S. by the Mississippi territory. The contents are nearly 40,000 square miles.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. It is not half a century since this country contained many populous towns of Indians, principally of the Cherokee and Chickesaw nations, and these still claim an extensive tract, within the area of the state, which they have reserved for hunting-ground. But as there are white settlements on all sides of them they cannot retain their forests many years, for another continent would hardly satiate the avidity of the American land jobber.

MEMORABLE EVENTS. The history of a country so recently reclaimed from a wilderness, cannot embrace many incidents worthy of record.

1740—1750. The western part of North Carolina explored by a company of Scotch gentlemen, who had obtained patents from the English government for extensive tracts. Some scattered settlements established under their patronage.

1754. The English inhabitants are murdered by the French and Indians, when the colony was entirely destroyed.

1765. A new settlement commenced, which has continued to increase to the present time, though not without frequent interruptions by the Indians.

1780. Many families migrated under the conduct of General Robertson, and seated themselves in the neighbourhood of Nashville.

1783. Part of this territory was allotted to compensate the officers and soldiers of the North Carolina regiments, who had served in the American war. Though this was like selling the bear skin before the beast was shot, the country acquired thereby a great increase of inhabitants, either of the military or their assignees.

1785. A secession from the government of North Carolina, and an attempt made to establish a new state, under the popular name of the state of Franklin. This caused a considerable ferment in North Carolina, which did not wholly subside till the year 1788.

1789. Ceded by North Carolina to the general Congress, and erected into a territorial government.

1796. Received into the union as an independent state. Constitution formed and approved.

RELIGION. The religious denominations of Tennessee are various, but the Presbyterians perhaps are the most numerous; while there are several congregations of Baptists and Methodists, and a few of the people called Quakers. All enjoy equally the rights and privileges of free citizens.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The first executive magistrate, styled governor, is elected by the people for two years, and is re-eligible six years out of every term of eight. He must have resided in the state four years, be 25 years of age, and possess a freehold of 500 acres. He has but few appointments; may grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment, and fill accidental vacancies in office till the next session of assembly. If the office become vacant by death or otherwise, the speaker of the senate acts as governor till next election.—The legislature is chosen by the people biennially, and consists of two branches, a senate and representatives, who are styled the general assembly: the qualifications of both houses are similar, viz. a freehold of 200 acres, full age, and a residence in the state of three years. They appoint the judges of the courts, the state attorney, and most of the

other civil officers of government; and they possess the power of impeaching and removing either the governor or judges in case of official misconduct.—The judges hold their commissions during good behaviour; the sheriffs and coroners are appointed by the county courts, and are commissioned by the governor for two years.—When either party is connected with the judge by interest or consanguinity, the governor may appoint three other competent men to hear and determine the cause in dispute.—No fine above fifty dollars can be imposed in any case, except by a jury of twelve men.—Every freeholder who is 21 years of age, and has resided six months in the state, has the right of suffrage.—The governor's salary which is 750 dollars per annum, is fixed by the constitution till the year 1804, as are the salaries of the judges, the secretary, treasurer, state attorney, and members of assembly.—The state sends two senators and three representatives to congress: senators appointed by joint ballot of both houses; representatives elected by a plurality of the freemen.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. In 1800 this state was divided into six districts, comprising 18 counties, and the inhabitants were 105,600, including 13,500 slaves. Increase in five years 28,340; white males 47,180; females 44,529; persons under 16 years 51,913; above 39,796; of 45 and upwards as $8\frac{1}{3}$ to a hundred. The militia was estimated at 8000 in the year 1788, but at this period are more than double that number.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. Tennessee is settled principally by emigrants from Pennsylvania, Virginia and the Carolinas, and of course resembles the agricultural classes of those states, except that it possesses a greater proportion of youth and enterprise. Except in the few towns, their mode of living and their amusements are rustic; their manners sociable but unpolished. English is the general language in private as well as public transactions.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING. There is a law of the state which provides for the institution of three colleges, and there are several grammar and common English schools in the principal towns; but it is too early to look for much fruit from these infant seminaries. The sons of the most wealthy are sent into the old states for their education.

CHIEF TOWNS. The two principal towns are Knoxville on the Holston river, which has been chosen as the seat of government, and Nashville on the Cumberland; each containing about four hundred inhabitants.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The chief manufactures are iron, there being several forges and furnaces, salt from the salines and salt licks; and coarse cotton cloths for home consumption; there is little of either exported. The commerce consists of exports of wheat, flour, cotton, furs, peltry, tobacco, and lumber to Orleans, to the amount of 443,900 dollars in the year; for which they receive in return the various manufactures of Europe, and the produce of the West Indies, either directly from Orleans, or more circuitously from the Atlantic states.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The air of this state may in general be termed mild and healthy, and the water which issues mostly from limestone springs salubrious. The rigours of winter are unknown, and although the heat at mid-summer is intense, the thermometer having been as high as 98° at a medium, for two weeks successively in July; they feel not those great and sudden changes, which are so trying to the human frame in the Atlantic states. It is said they have very few physicians, and of course it may be concluded they have few dangerous diseases; which may be owing, in some measure, to so many of the inhabitants living the active life of hunters.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE. Where the country is not broken by mountains, the soil is generally fertile, and produces abundant crops of wheat, Indian corn, cotton, and indigo, as well as most of the hortulary plants, roots and fruits that are common to the Southern states. The soil being fresh, the agricultural process is not attended with much labour, which is well adapted to a district so thinly peopled.

MINERAL, ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. The iron mines of Tennessee are numerous and productive, having been worked for several years to a considerable amount, and there are some indications of lead ore. Besides most of the quadrupeds that are common to the other states, Tennessee still possesses the deer, the hart, and the buffaloe, and the rivers abound with a variety of the finny race. The extensive forests are filled with timber of a luxuriant growth, adapted to all the purposes of

fuel and architecture, while the undergrowth in some counties consists of cane of uncommon height with angelica, ginseng, snake root, valerian, pink root, and many other medicinal plants.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS AND SPRINGS. The mountains of this country are high and extensive, and intersect it in various directions; though the Cumberland, the great Iron, and the Bald mountains, which are the most conspicuous, extend principally from north-east to south-west. The summit of a part of Cumberland exhibits a high table land of near 50 miles in breadth, and is covered with a middling soil which will be very valuable when vacant land is scarce, as it must afford some of the most healthy situations in the district.—The Tennessee and Cumberland, with their several branches, are the principal streams that water this state. That which gives its name to the state is a very considerable river. It springs from the eastern range of mountains that divide the state from North Carolina, and runs in a south-west direction to near the muscle shoals; thence its course is nearly north till it reaches the Ohio. It may be navigated by large vessels 250 miles, and is boatable four times the distance. The principal springs of the Cumberland river rise in the neighbourhood of Powell's mountain; and although it waters a considerable tract of this state, its course is equally through Kentucky, where it unites with the Ohio about twelve miles above the Tennessee. It is navigable by large vessels to Nashville, which is 200 miles, and twice the distance by small boats. The salt springs of this state are numerous, and yield all the salt that is wanted for domestic consumption.

OHIO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. THIS frontier state is situated between 39° and 43° of north latitude, and the longitude of 5° and 10° west from Philadelphia, equal to 80°

and 85° west from London. It is bounded on the east by Pennsylvania; on the north by an east and west line touching the southernmost point of lake Michigan; on the south by the river Ohio; and on the west by a meridian from the mouth of the great Miami to its northern limit—containing an area of about 42,000 square miles.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. This territory was recently purchased by the United States of several Indian tribes, the latest native proprietors: among these the most influential were the Sacs, Chippeways, Ottawaus, Poutewatamies, Wyandotts and Delawares. At the close of the American war these potent tribes were estimated, by some at twenty, by others at sixty thousand souls: the present enumeration hardly exceeds three or four hundred. Intemperance, diseases, scarcity of game, and the parent of all these evils, the approximation of the whites, has either destroyed, or driven them over the lakes.

RELIGION, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND LANGUAGE. The great body of settlers in this western country are Dissenting Protestants, with a few scattered villages of French, who had spread themselves from the mouth of St. Lawrence to the estuary of the Mississippi, when Canada belonged to France. Till the year 1802 this country was under a territorial government, being part of what was then called the North-Western Territory. It now sends two senators with one representative to Congress, as a member of the federal union. The general language is English: their manners and customs, hardy and unpolished, such as are commonly found among the frontier inhabitants, who may be styled the pioneers of American colonization. The constitution of the state is cast in the common mould of governor or executive chief, and a legislature of two branches. The governor is chosen for two years—he is commander in chief, and has power to grant reprieves and pardons, which in this country must be a useful prerogative. The senate are elected for the same term, with an annual rotation of one half. The representatives hold their seats but one year. The law is administered by a supreme court of three judges, which is a court of equity as well as appeals. The jurisdiction of the common pleas is limited to actions of one hundred dollars, subject to an appeal in disputes, above twenty dollars, as well as all cases of felony. The judges are appointed by

the assembly for seven years, and justices are chosen by the people for three years.

COUNTIES, TOWNS, POPULATION AND MILITIA. The state is divided into eighteen counties, which in the year 1800 contained 45,365 free white inhabitants: no slaves: males 24,453. Most of the inhabitants are in the prime of life, there being only 3350 of 45 years and upwards. The chief towns are Chilicotha, the seat of government, situated on the Sciota, about forty miles above its junction with the Ohio; Marietta, at the confluence of the Muskingham and Ohio; and Cincinnati on the Ohio, not far from the mouth of the little Miami, a place of considerable trade. In proportion to the number of inhabitants the militia is very considerable, as most of the males are of an age to bear arms.

COMMERCE, &c. The principal manufactures are whiskey, salt and sugar. The chief purchases of foreign merchandise are made in Philadelphia and Baltimore: and the excess of their agricultural productions, their furs and peltry, are either consumed by the numerous emigrants that flow hither annually, or are shipped for New Orleans. In the year 1802 there was a ship of 220 tons, and a brig of 120 tons built at Marietta, while three brigs of 100 tons each, and a sloop of 80 tons were on the stocks, some of them almost ready to be launched. As this state is situated between the Ohio and lake Erie its trade will probably be divided between those two waters.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. The general temperature of the air is considerably milder than that of the Atlantic states in the same latitude. The cold is more equable in winter, and the heat more moderate in summer. This appears pretty evident from cotton flourishing at Cincinnati and Vincennes, in the latitude of 39° which cannot be raised in the Atlantic states farther to the north than 36°. The mountains of Ohio are very inconsiderable, while the savannas, or prairies, are numerous and extensive. The soil is generally loam, covering a stratum of clay, and yields on cultivation the most luxuriant crops of grain, cotton and tobacco. The country is mostly well timbered—and there appears to be an abundance of coal, as well as some iron ore: but it has been so partially explored, that little can be said with certainty of its mineral treasures.

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS. The streams that water this state are sufficiently numerous, but neither deep nor rapid, the country being an extensive level. Creeks which are of considerable volume in winter disappear in summer. The situations for mill-seats are comparatively few, and this is an evil which must increase as improvement advances. The rivers most worthy of notice are the Beaver, Muskingham, Hockhocking, Sciota, and the two Miamies, which run into the Ohio, and the Sandusky and Cayahoga that unite with lake Erie. Sciota, which is the largest, is navigable only by large boats, except when it is swelled by a flood.

MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. **THIS** territory, which was formerly the western part of Georgia, is situated between the 31° and 35° of north latitude, and between 9° and 16° of longitude west from Philadelphia, or 85° and 92° west from London. It is bounded on the E. by the river Catahoochy; on the N. by the state of Tennessee; on the W. by the Mississippi; and on the S. by West Florida, containing an area of about 70,000 square miles. The greater part of this extensive region is still the property of the Creek, Choctaw, Chikeseaw, and Cherokee Indians, two other potent tribes, the Yazoos and Natches, having been destroyed by wars, or retired further into the western forests.

The first European settlement in this country was made by the French from New Orleans or Florida. As long since as the year 1727 there was a colony of Frenchmen settled at a place called the Natches, but they were mostly massacred by the natives. In the year 1763 a considerable body of Acadians removed hither, having been expelled from their former abode in Nova Scotia by the English, for taking part with their countrymen in the war which had just com-

menced. But while this territory remained under the dominion of the French, no improvements were made worth noticing, either in building or cultivating the soil; for they excel more in over-running a country that has been improved by others, than in clearing and cultivating a wilderness.

The general face of the country is an extensive level, wide savannas, and forests of towering timber, consisting of most of the species that are useful for fuel or architecture; among which the pine, the red and white cedar, are the most conspicuous.—The soil is generally very rich, and where it has been cultivated, produces great crops of grain, cotton, indigo, and tobacco of a superior quality. The cultivation of the sugar cane has been attempted, but the frosts which some years visit even this southern latitude, have rendered it rather precarious.—There are several noble rivers that pervade this territory, but the outlets of most of them are in the Spanish dominions; a circumstance that abates much from the value of this fertile country.—The principal streams are, the Catahoochey, which rises in the Apalachian mountains, and after washing the western boundary of the territory, runs into the bay of Apalachee;—the Escambia, a large stream that discharges into the bay of Pensacola;—the Allabahma that falls into the bay of Mobile;—the Pearl river, the Amit and the Yazoo, which unite with the Mississippi, near the northern boundary of the territory: most of these rivers are navigable by boats and barges from fifty to one hundred and fifty miles.—The territory is divided into three or four counties, containing about nine thousand inhabitants (one third slaves) and is governed by an ordinance of congress, and a governor and judges appointed by the president of the United States.

INDIANA.

THIS name was at first given to a tract of land granted by the Six Nations, to William Trent and Co. as a compensation for injuries they had sustained by Indian depredations; but it now comprises all the north-western territory belonging to the United States, and is bounded on the E. by the state of Ohio; on the N. and W. by the northern and western limits of the United States; and on the S. by the river Ohio.—This very extensive region comprises a great variety of soil, the greater part of which has been very imperfectly explored. Some of it is reported to be of excellent quality;—it is watered by several noble rivers, the principal of which are the Wabash, the Illinois, and the Kaskaskias.—The inhabitants are computed to be between five and six thousand, and are governed in the same manner as the Mississippi territory, by a special ordinance of congress.—The towns or villages are few, and of small account; the most remarkable is Vincennes, situated on the Wabash, and planted by the French, as early as 1735; but so little inclined to labour and improvement were these people, that when Volney, their countryman, visited them in 1797, the place contained no more than 50 houses, and these were tenanted by a race of *demi-sauvages*, as “meagre, tawney and poor as Arabs.” If this comparison had been made by any other than a Frenchman, we should have suspected its fidelity; but the philosopher knew both people, and had traced a striking resemblance in the moral, as well as physical, attributes of the two nations, or he would hardly have expressed himself so freely.

LOUISIANA.

THE extent and boundaries of this newly acquired territory are far from being ascertained; but the friends of peace cherish a hope that they will at a short period be put in a train of *amicable* adjustment.

While the French possessed Louisiana they comprised under that name all the country that lies W. of the Allegheny mountains, from the mouth of the Mississippi, northward, to their other possessions in Canada; and westward, to the Spanish dominions in New Mexico. But the English never acknowledged these limits, so far as they affected their colonies; and they now claim the port of Sir Francis Drake on the Pacific ocean, marking the northern boundary of the Spanish territories, in North America, by the sources of the Rio Bravo, and the latitude of $39^{\circ} 30'$ as the medial line; which will intercept many of the upper branches of the Mississippi, and great part of the waters of the Missouri. The lines therefore on the north and the west remain unadjusted. On the east there is less room for controversy: this boundary is defined by the courses of the Mississippi, and by the river Ibberville, as asserted by the court of Spain, though the government of the United States claims as far as the river Perdido in West Florida: on the south it extends to the gulf of Mexico. Hence it appears that the United States have paid fifteen millions of dollars for a country, the boundaries of which may be disputed at least on two sides; though we presume that the disputes will not be attended with any serious consequences.

But whatever difficulties may occur in this respect; whatever the territory may have cost more than it is worth to the *purchasers*; and however it has been alienated from the king of Spain; it is a very extensive region, as assumed by the most moderate American calculators, and contains a larger compass of land and water than the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, being not less than one hundred thousand square miles.

Louisiana was first discovered by the Spaniards in 1539. But finding no gold mines to satiate their cupidity, and meeting an unfavourable reception from the natives, they soon deserted it.—It was afterwards more fully explored by the French, in 1682, under the enterprising Le Salle, who penetrated the wilderness, by land and water, from Canada to the Mississippi, and down that river to its estuary.—In 1697 the king of France sent one Ibberville, a naval officer, to prosecute the work begun by Le Salle; and he established the first permanent settlement in Louisiana.—The fame of the country being more generally known in 1717, a company was instituted in France, under the title of the Mississippi Company, whose object was to carry on an extensive trade with the natives, and to found a colony, which, uniting with Canada, might form a cordon round the British settlements in North America.—In 1720, they laid the foundation of the town of New Orleans, near the mouth of the Mississippi.—In 1762 the French ceded this country to Spain, under which government it remained till 1800; when it was reconveyed to Bonaparte, First Consul of France, in exchange for the kingdom of Etruria.—But Etruria (formerly the dukedom of Tuscany) seems still under the domination of Bonaparte, and the Spaniard on whom it was to be settled has only a nominal jurisdiction. Perhaps it may be considered as too important a part of Europe for any prince but one of the Imperial Family.—At this stage of the conveyance there seems to be some blemish in the title; but as it is not the fashion of the times for sovereigns to examine title-deeds with a very scrupulous eye, the president and senate have not discovered any thing to prevent a transfer from Bonaparte to the United States of the territory in question. Of course a treaty was ratified by the high contracting parties, and the sovereignty over the soil and the inhabitants of Louisiana was transferred to the United States, in April, 1803.—Some scrupulous republicans may not altogether approve this purchase of a dubious title, or this traffic in human stock, without consulting the choice of the party, after the manner of European despots; but these qualms, if they ever occurred, were considered by our Executive as trivial, when weighed against the acquisition of such an important dominion.

The soil, productions, improvements, &c. of this country are not better known than the boundaries. From the scanty materials we possess, it appears that a considerable part of the banks of the Mississippi, the portion best known, will for ages to come, be inundated with periodical floods, and be uninhabitable. The river overflows its banks at least once a year, when the water rises fifty feet above its common level, and the torrent bears along with it trees and a prodigious mass of rubbish, which, being checked by the gulf stream in their passage to the sea, form shoals at the mouth of the river. These alluvia, in the course of numberless years, have produced a considerable tract of land, part of which constitutes the island of New Orleans, and divided the mouth of the river into several channels. Some of these are dry at low water, as the channel of Ibberville, although at flood it conveys part of the Mississippi to lake Maurepas, and thence through lake Ponchartrain to the sea. The principal branch below Orleans which is called Baleyze, and is the ship channel, has commonly but sixteen feet of water. About seventy miles above Orleans there is a channel on the west side of the river, called by the French la Fourche, which is dry except in freshets; and about one hundred and twenty miles higher is another that is boatable at all times, and unites with the bay of Mexico at St. Bernards. On this last mentioned branch there is a considerable settlement.

On the east side of the Mississippi, for 200 miles northerly, the land is very low, being formed by the alluvial depositions of the river, and is inexhaustibly rich; as it is also on the west side, for about 150 miles: thence to the mouth of the Ohio the country is inundated every year to the extent of thirty miles, with a depth of water of from two to ten feet; a fit receptacle for alligators and snapping turtles. Northward of these drowned lands the elevation commences, the country is intersected by mountains, and exhibits the most stupendous prairies, or natural meadows, that are any where to be seen.

The principal settlements are on the island of New Orleans, at la Fourche, Chaffala, Ibberville, Pointe coupee and Red River; being confined principally to the banks of the streams, and seldom extending above one mile from the water.—The principal town is New Orleans, situated on the east side of the Mississippi, near the middle of the

island, in the latitude of 30° north, and longitude of 90° west from the meridian of London. It is divided into squares, the streets crossing at right angles, in the manner of Philadelphia. The houses are mostly of bricks, some of them two and three stories high, and handsomely built; but as the ground is newly formed they are wholly without cellars. The inhabitants are estimated at about ten thousand. The principal edifices are, a government-house with spacious gardens, a hospital, custom-house, a military barrack, prison, market-house, &c.—The territory is watered by several considerable rivers which may be considered as branches of the Mississippi: the most noted are the Red River, the Arkansa, the Black River and the Missouri; some of them being navigable a thousand miles through the wilderness.—The immeasurable forests of Louisiana are filled with the same vegetable productions as the southern territories of the United States; and the agriculture consists principally of cotton, rice, tobacco, indigo, maize and sugar cane.—The land abounds in mineral treasures: fossile salt, lead, copper, coal and iron have been discovered in several parts of this extensive region.—The commerce of New Orleans has been augmented greatly within a few years. In the year 1802 the exports were valued at two millions of dollars, and the imports rather more.—The population has been estimated at 50,000 whites, being principally French, with about 40,000 slaves, blacks and mulattoes.—Since the country has come under the dominion of the United States, the government has been divided into two departments. The lower department which is called the territory of New Orleans, is under the jurisdiction of a governor, appointed for three years by the President of the United States, together with a secretary, and a council consisting of thirteen persons.—The latter, with the governor, constitutes the territorial legislature.—Justice is administered by a superior and several inferior courts, where trials are decided by juries, in all capital offences, as well as in other less important cases, if the parties require it.—The northern or upper part is called the district of Louisiana, and is subject to the jurisdiction of the governor of Indiana, who, with the assistance of the judges, is invested with full power to make and execute all laws and ordinances that may be found necessary for the well-being of the inhabitants.

THE SPANISH DOMINIONS

IN NORTH AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES. IN estimating the extent of these large and flourishing possessions it will be necessary, in the first place, to consider the boundaries. That towards the S. E. is decidedly the eastern boundary of Veragua, the last province of North America. Towards the north the Spaniards do not readily assent to a boundary: but even according to the English maps it ascends to the Turtle lake, one of the sources of the Mississippi. On the west the English specially claim the port of Sir Francis Drake; and mark the Spanish boundary at Fort St. Francisco, to the N. of the town of Monterey. Upon the whole the sources of the Rio Bravo may be assumed as a medial boundary, as there are several small Spanish settlements to the north of Santa Fé, that is about lat. $39^{\circ} 30'$; while the southern boundary is about lat. $7^{\circ} 30'$: hence a length of thirty-two degrees, or 1920 g. miles. But the breadth little corresponds to this prodigious length of territory; though in one place, from the Atlantic shore of East Florida to those of California on the Pacific, it amounts to about three quarters of that length; but the narrowest part of the isthmus in Veragua is not above 25 B. miles: in general the medial breadth can scarcely be computed at more than 400 g. miles.

Of this wide empire, the chief part is distinguished by the name of MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN; the provinces in

ascending from the south to the north being Veragua, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, (with the Mosquito shore claimed by the English) Guatemala and Verapaz, Chiapa, Tabasco, and the peninsula of Yucatan, Guaxaca, Mexico proper, including subdivisions; with new Galicia, Biscay, and Leon.

The provinces farther to the north are Cinaloa and others on the gulf of California, with that large Chersonese itself; New Mexico includes the most northern central settlements on the Rio Bravo: while towards the east Louisiana and the two Floridas, complete the chief dominations. But the great divisions are properly only four: 1. LOUISIANA.* 2. The two FLORIDAS. 3. NEW MEXICO, which contains Coaguilla, New Estremadura, Sonora, Texas, New Navarre. 4. MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN, which includes the other provinces, and seems to extend to the river of Hiaqui, but the boundaries between Old and New Mexico do not seem to be indicated with any precision.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of these extensive regions was various, consisting of Mexicans and other tribes; considerably civilized in the centre, while to the north and south were savage races. The origin of the Mexicans as well as the other aborigines remains in great obscurity, after the fruitless researches of many ingenious and learned men. But if we are not able to trace the origin of these people, we can ascertain their extermination in the dark history of the Spanish conquests.

HISTORICAL EPOCHS. The historical epochs of Mexico have been of little moment since it was conquered by the Spaniards in 1521, when the last monarch Guatimozin perished, Montezuma having died in the preceding year.

The extensive peninsula of California was discovered by Cortez, in 1536, but was so completely neglected, that in most charts it was represented as an island. The jesuits afterwards explored this province, and acquired a dominion there as complete as in Paraguay. In 1765 a war broke out with the savages, which ended in their submission, 1771. During their marches the Spaniards discover-

* Lately restored to France; and since purchased of France by the United States, for fifteen millions of dollars, and a complete discharge for countless spoliations by sea and land.

ed at Cineguilla, in the province of Sonora, a plain of fourteen leagues in extent, in which vast quantities of gold were found in large lumps, at the depth of only sixteen inches. Before the end of the year 1771, above two thousand persons were settled at Cineguilla: and other mines, not inferior in wealth, have been discovered in other parts of Sonora and Cinaloa.

ANTIQUITIES. The ancient monuments of the Mexicans seem chiefly to consist of a few symbolical paintings, the colours of which are remarkably bright, but the designs rude. Some of their utensils and ornaments have also been preserved, but they are coarse and uncouth. Their edifices appear to have been little superior, being meanly built with turf and stone, and thatched with reeds. The great temple of Mexico was a square mound of earth, only ninety feet wide, partly faced with stone; with a quadrangle of thirty feet at the top, on which was a shrine of the deity, probably of wood: and in truth the Mexicans appear to have little exceeded the inhabitants of Easter Island in any of the arts.

RELIGION. The religion of the Spanish settlers in these provinces is well known to be the Roman Catholic, which, with the characteristic jealousy of the government, impedes industry and prosperity. It is computed that one fifth part of the Spaniards consists of ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns. The establishment of the inquisition, and the strange fanaticism of the Spaniards, who disgrace the European name, have not only crushed all spirit of exertion, but have prevented the admixture of other Europeans, whose industry might improve their settlements, and whose courage might defend them.

The religion of the ancient Mexicans appears to have been chiefly founded on fear, the temples being decorated with the figures of destructive animals: and fasts, penances, voluntary wounds, and tortures formed the essence of their rites. Human sacrifices were deemed the most acceptable; and every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured and sacrificed.

GOVERNMENT. The *ancient* government of Mexico was an hereditary monarchy, tempered however by a kind of election not unknown in the barbarous ages of Europe. Despotism seems to have begun with the celebrated Montezuma. There were several royal councils, and classes of

nobility, most of them hereditary. Land was not supposed to belong to the monarch, but was alienable by the proprietors. There was no code of laws, and their armour and tactics appear to have been extremely rude.

The Spanish government is vested in the viceroy of Mexico, whose rank and power are far superior to those of Peru and the new kingdom of Granada. The legal salary of the viceroys of Mexico and Peru is now forty thousand ducats; but the disposal of lucrative offices, monopolies, connivances, presents, &c. sometimes swell them to an enormous amount. The court of the viceroy is formed on the regal model, with horse and foot guards, a grand household, and numerous attendants. In the provinces there are tribunals called audiences, of which there are eleven for Spanish America; and the council of the Indies, resident in Spain, controls even the viceroys.

POPULATION. The population of all the Spanish provinces in North America has been estimated at little more than seven millions; and the inhabitants of Mexico were computed at 150,000.

The population of America, before the European conquest, appears to have been greatly exaggerated, as usual in every case of the like nature. It is probable that when America was discovered, the whole population, including the West Indies, did not exceed four millions.

ARMY, &c. The Spanish armies in America must depend in a great measure upon the supplies sent from Spain; to check the natives and prevent foreign invasion. The navy is also that of the parent country; but there are many guard-ships and commercial vessels solely appropriated to the American colonies. The revenue which Mexico yields to the Spanish crown amounts to above a million sterling; but there are great expences. By the most recent accounts, the total revenue derived by Spain from America and the Philippines is 2,700,000*l.* of which one half must be deducted for the extravagant charges of administration.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE. The political importance of colonies is of course merged in that of the parent country, as long as they are retained in subjection. Dr. Robertson has observed that the Mexican gazettes are filled with descriptions of religious processions, and accounts of the consecrations of churches, festivals and beati-

fication of saints, and other superstitious baubles, while civil and commercial affairs occupy little attention. Few exertions of ability or industry can be expected from such fanatics; and it may easily be predicted that if Spain do not amend her colonial system, her rich possessions will, at the first onset, become a prey to their northern neighbours.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners and customs of the Spaniards in their North American settlement have not been particularly illustrated; but if they differ from those of the parent country it is chiefly by superior dissipation and religious fanaticism. A peculiar feature of the ancient Mexican language was, that a termination indicating respect might be added to every word. Thus in speaking to an equal, the word father was *tatl*, but to a superior *tatzin*. Their wars were constant and sanguinary; and their manners in general corresponded with this barbarous disposition, the principal warriors covering themselves with the skins of the sacrificed victims, and dancing through the streets. The year was divided into eighteen months, each of twenty days; and five days were added, which, like the French Sansculotides, were dedicated to festivity.

LANGUAGE. Mexican words frequently end in *//*; and are besides of a surprising and unpronounceable length, resembling in this respect the language of the savages in North America, and some of the African dialects. The language wants the consonants *b*, *t*, *f*, *g*, *r*, and *s*; in which respect only it strictly coincides with the Peruvian; but the Peruvian is a far superior and more pleasing language, though some modifications of the verbs be of extreme length.

There are several laudable institutions in the Spanish settlements for the education of the natives, and some colleges or universities; but the fanatical spirit of the instructors renders such foundations of little value.

CITIES. The chief city of New Spain, and all Spanish America, is MEXICO, celebrated for the singularity of its situation. In a beautiful vale surrounded with mountains, the lake of Tezcuco is joined on the south to that of Chalco by a strait, the whole circuit of these lakes being about ninety miles. In a small isle to the north of this junction rose the old city of Mexico, accessible by several causeys raised in the shallow waters, but on the east side

there was no communication except by canoes, the houses being all founded on piles. The streets are wide and straight, but very dirty; and the houses resembling those in Spain, are tolerably built. The chief edifice is the viceroy's palace, which stands near the cathedral in a central square, but is rather solid than elegant. Behind the palace is the mint, in which more than a hundred workmen are employed as the owners of the mines here exchange their bullion for coin. The other chief buildings are the churches, chapels and convents, which are very numerous and richly ornamented. The rail round the high altar of the cathedral is of solid silver, and there is a silver lamp so capacious that three men get in to clean it; while it is also enriched with lions' heads, and other ornaments in pure gold. "To the north of the town, near the suburbs, is the public walk, or *Alameda*. A rivulet runs all round it, and forms a pretty large square, with a bason and *jet d'eau* in the middle. Eight walks, with each two rows of trees, terminate at this bason like a star. A few paces off, and facing the *Alameda*, is the *Quemadero*; this is the place where they burn the Jews and other unhappy victims of the awful tribunal of inquisition. This *Quemadero* is an enclosure between four walls, and filled with ovens, into which are thrown over the walls the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive. The Spanish inhabitants are commonly clothed in silk, their hats being adorned with belts of gold and roses of diamonds; even the slaves have bracelets and necklaces of gold, silver, pearls, and gems. The ladies are distinguished for beauty and gallantry. Mexico, though inland, is the seat of vast commerce between Vera Cruz on the east, and Acapulco on the west; and the shops display a profusion of gold, silver, and jewels. In magnificent regularity it yields to few cities even on the ancient continent."——There are many other considerable towns in the Spanish dominions in North America. Even the inferior cities contain, as Robertson observes, a superior population to those of any other European nation in America, that of Angelos being computed at 60,000, and of Guadalaxara 30,000, exclusive of Indians.

EDIFICES. The chief edifices are the cathedrals, churches, and convents, as may be expected where the clergy are so predominant, so that civil architecture and civil affairs are almost entirely neglected. Part of what may

be called the high European road from Vera Cruz to Mexico, is tolerably smooth and pleasant; and the others are probably neglected, and in so mountainous a country they are rough and precipitous. Inland navigation seems unknown, and is perhaps unnecessary.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. New Spain is singularly distinguished by the multitude and variety of its productions. Cochineal and cocoa, with a little silk and cotton, form articles of export; but the chief are gold, silver, and precious stones. There was a celebrated fair at Acapulco, on the annual arrival of the ships from Peru and Chili; after which the noted galleon, laden with the wealth of America, pursued her course to Manilla. Other arrangements are now followed, and smaller vessels employed since 1748. In 1764 monthly packets were established between Corugna and Havanna, whence smaller vessels pass to Vera Cruz, and to Portobello in South America; and an interchange of productions by these vessels is also permitted. In the following year the trade to Cuba was laid open to all Spain; and the privilege was afterwards extended to Louisiana, and the provinces of Yucatan and Champeachy. In 1774 free intercourse was permitted between the three viceroyalties of Mexico, Peru, and New Granada. Occasionally they open some of their ports to American vessels: and at the close of an European war seize those that happen to remain there, as concerned in a clandestine trade.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. In Florida, chiefly consisting of low grounds, the climate is insalubrious in the summer, but the winters are mild and healthy. The climate of Louisiana is cold in the northern parts. In California epidemical distempers seem to be frequent; but the country has not been sufficiently examined by scientific observers. Moisture seems to predominate in the isthmus; but not to such a degree as in the South American province of Darien, where it may be said to rain for nine months of the year. The maritime districts of Mexico are hot and unhealthy. The inland mountains, on the contrary, will sometimes present white frost and ice in the dog days. In other inland provinces the climate is mild and benign. There are plentiful rains; thunder is frequent; and the earthquakes and volcanoes are additional circumstances of terror.

RIVERS. The streams in the isthmus are of a short course, and little remarkable in any respect. The principal river of Spanish North America is, beyond all comparison, the Rio Bravo, called also del Norte, or of the northern star. The course of this important river, so far as its sources can yet be conjectured, may be about 1000 B. miles; but its whole circuit probably exceeds that of the Danube.

Next in consequence would seem to be the Rio Colorado, on the east of the Bravo, whose comparative course may be about 700 B. miles. Towards the west is a large river which flows into the gulf of California, called *Colorado de los Martires*; but the main stream seems rather to be the *Rio Grande de los Apostolos*. The course of this river may be computed at 600 B. miles.

LAKES. The chief lake in Spanish North America, so far as yet explored, is that of Nicaragua, which is about 170 B. miles in length, N. W. to S. E. and about half that in breadth. This grand lake is situated in the province of the same name towards the south of the isthmus, and has a great outlet, the river of St. Juan, to the gulf of Mexico, while a smaller stream is by some supposed to flow into the Pacific. In the hands of an enterprising people this lake would supply the long wished for passage, from the Atlantic into the Pacific, and in the most direct course that could be desired. Nature has already supplied half the means; and it is probable that a complete passage might have been opened, at half the expense wasted in fruitless expeditions to discover such a passage by the north-west, or the north-east.

MOUNTAINS. The whole of the Spanish territories in North America may be regarded as mountainous. The grand chain of the Andes seems to terminate on the west of the gulf of Darien in South America, but by others is supposed to extend to the lake of Nicaragua.

To the north of the lake of Nicaragua the main ridges often pass east and west. In the ancient kingdom of Mexico, which extended from near the lake of Chapala in the north, to Chiapa, on the river Tabasco in the south, the summits rise to great height, as being the central parts of a range wholly unconnected with the Andes. The mountain of Orisaba is said to be the highest in Mexico; and its snowy summit is visible from the capital, a distance of sixty

miles. This celebrated mountain is to the S. E. of Mexico, not far from the road to Vera Cruz: it became volcanic in 1545, and continued for twenty years; since which time there has been no appearance of inflammation. Though the summit be clothed with perpetual snow, the sides are adorned with beautiful forests of cedars, pines, and other trees. From Mexico the range extends in a N. W. direction towards Cinaloa, and is called the Sierra Mada, or Mother Range, and the Shining Mountains. It is afterwards, according to the best maps, joined by a ridge running N. W. from Louisiana; and after this junction passes through the north-west to the proximity of the arctic ocean.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The plants that characterize the North American possessions of the Spanish crown are, a species of the Indian fig, upon which the cochineal insect more particularly delights to feed; the true jalap a native of the province of Xalappa, in the viceroyalty of Mexico; two trees that yield the fragrant gum-resins known in commerce by the names of balsam of Capivi and of Tolu. The shores of the bays of Honduras and Campeachy have been celebrated from their very first discovery for their immense forests of mahogany and logwood; and the neighbourhood of Guatimala is distinguished for its indigo. The guayacum, the sassafras and tamarind, the cocoa nut palm, the chocolate nut tree, and a variety of others, which are better known as natives of the West Indian islands, enrich and adorn these fertile provinces. The pine apple grows wild in the woods, and the shallow rocky soils are inhabited by the various species of aloe and euphorbia.

Among the most singular animals is the Mexican or hunchback dog, a kind of porcupine; and some others described by several naturalists. What is called the tiger seems a species of panther, and sometimes grows to a great size. But Clavigero says that the largest quadruped is the tapir, which is amphibious, and in its manners resembles the hippopotamus. The bison is found in New Mexico. In California there are said to be wild sheep. The birds of New Spain are particularly numerous and curious.

MINERALOGY. The mineralogy of the Spanish empire in North America is equal, if not superior, to that of Peru, and the other southern provinces. Even in the

northern parts nature has disclosed her treasures: the abundance of gold found in the province of Sonora has been already mentioned; and California is supposed to contain rich minerals. The chief silver mines are now to the north-west of the capital, where there is a town called Luis de Potosi, more than 200 B. miles from Mexico. These mines are said to have been discovered soon after those of Potosi, 1545; they are in a considerable range of mountains, which give source to the river of Panuco. Amber and asphalt likewise occur in New Spain, as well as diamonds, amethysts and turquoises. Copper is said to abound in some districts to the west of the capital.

THE AMERICAN ISLANDS,

OR

WEST INDIES.

THESE islands, so important to commerce, are Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, all of considerable extent; and followed by the distinguished group called the Antilles, Carribbee, or Leeward Islands, but more properly by the French, Windward Islands, as being towards the east, the point of the trade wind. To the south of this group is Trinidad, a recent English acquisition: to the west of which stretch the Leeward Islands of the Spaniards. In the N. E. of this grand assemblage are the Bahama or Lucayos Islands, narrow and barren strips of land, formerly frequented by pirates, till subjected to the legal power of England; but chiefly remarkable as having been the first discovery of Colon. We shall begin with the largest, viz.

CUBA.

THIS noble island is not less than 700 B. miles in length; but the medial breadth does not exceed 70. On his first voyage, after exploring the Bahama Isles, Colon discovered Cuba; but he soon abandoned it to proceed to Hayti, afterwards called Hispaniola or St. Domingo, where he

expected to find a greater abundance of gold. While Hispaniola was selected as a factory to secure the acquisition of gold, it was not certainly known whether Cuba was an island, or part of the continent, till 1508, when it was circumnavigated by Ocampo; and in 1511 it was conquered by three hundred Spaniards under Velasquez.

The industry of the Spaniards is far from being proverbial; yet such is the fertility of Cuba, that it may be regarded as a most important and flourishing possession. The quantity of sugar is considerable; and the tobacco is esteemed of a more exquisite flavour than that of any other part of America. This with the other large islands, were also called the Great Antilles, and they were also known by the name, of the *Leeward Islands*, in contradistinction to the exterior group called *Windward Islands*. Havanna, the capital, supposed to contain 10,000 inhabitants, was built in 1519; and was taken in 1669 by Morgan, a celebrated buccaneer. It again surrendered to the English in 1761, and treasures were found of no small amount. This extensive island is divided by a chain of mountains passing E. and W. The rivers are of short course, but there are several excellent harbours, particularly that of the Havanna, which is one of the finest in the world. Among the products must also be reckoned ginger, long pepper, mastic, cocoa, manioc and aloes. There are mines of excellent copper, which supply the other Spanish colonies with domestic utensils; and gold is not unknown in the rivers. The forests abound with wild cattle and swine; and among the trees are green ebony and mahogany. There is a governor-general; and eighteen jurisdictions are governed by distinct magistrates. The natural history of this large island is very defective, as is the case with all the Spanish possessions.

SAINT DOMINGO.

THIS island, the second in the American archipelago, one-half of which is usurped by the black insurgents, is about 400 B. miles in length by 100 in breadth. Under the name of Hispaniola it was the first Spanish settlement in the new world. The French colony derived its origin from a party

of buccaneers, mostly natives of Normandy, towards the middle of the seventeenth century; and the western part was formally ceded to France by the peace of Ryswick. So industrious and flourishing was this French colony, that it was termed the paradise of the West Indies: and according to Mr. Edwards, in 1790, the population amounted to 30,831 whites, and about 480,000 negro slaves, the mulattoes, or free people of colour, being supposed to be 24,000; while the total value of exports in the various articles of sugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, molasses, rum, and hides, amounted to 171,544,666 livres, being equal to 4,765,129*l.* sterling money of Great Britain.

This invaluable colony is lost to France for ever, by a series of the most impolitic, cruel and perfidious conduct, the particulars of which must be fresh in the memory of every reader.

JAMAICA.

THIS island was discovered by Colon, 1494, during his second voyage; but was little explored till his fourth and last voyage. In 1655 it fell into the hands of the English, by whose industry it has become one of the most flourishing of the West Indian settlements. In size it is the third island in this archipelago, being about 170 P. miles in length, by 60 in breadth. St. Jago or Spanish Town is regarded as the capital; while Kingston is the chief sea port. The number of negroes is computed at 250,000, and the whites are probably 20,000, the free negroes and mulattoes 10,000. The chief exports are to Great Britain, Ireland, and North America, in sugar, rum, coffee, indigo, ginger, and pimento, valued in 1787 at 2,000,000*l.* The imports were computed at a million and a half, and slaves from Africa formed a considerable article. There is a poll tax, with duties on negroes and rum, yielding more than 100,000*l.* annually; and the ordinary expenses of government in 1788 were computed at 75,000*l.* The government consists of the captain general or governor; a council of twelve, nominated by the crown; and a house of assembly, containing forty-three members, elected by the freeholders. The climate, though tempered by the sea

breezes, is extremely hot; and the days and nights nearly of equal duration. A ridge of mountains, from east to west, divides the island into two parts; and the landscape often boasts of peculiar beauties. Towards the interior are forests, crowned with the blue summits of the central ridge. What is called the Blue Mountain Peak rises 7431 feet above the level of the sea. There are about one hundred rivulets, of which the Black River, running to the south, is the most considerable. The bread fruit tree, with other useful plants, has been introduced by the exertions of Sir Joseph Banks, than which none can be more beneficial, or more worthy of applause.

PORTO RICO.

THIS isle, which belongs to Spain, is about 120 R. miles in length, by 40 in breadth. Its size and consequence are well known to the possessors, being a fertile, beautiful, and well watered country. The chief trade is in sugar, ginger, cotton, hides; with some drugs, fruits, and sweetmeats: and the northern part is said to contain mines of gold and silver. Porto Rico was discovered by Colon in 1498; and was subjugated by Ponce de Leon, the first explorer of Florida, about 1509. The Spanish voyagers and authors, whose imagination magnified every feature of the new world, reported the native population at 600,000; while perhaps a real enumeration might have reduced them to 60,000, if not to 20,000. According to Raynal the present population does not exceed 5000, three-fourths of which are slaves.

THE CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

THIS range extends from Tobago, in the south, to the Virgin islands in the north. The Caribbee islands are noted for fertility and commercial advantage, the chief possessors being the English and French. Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, Nevis, Tobago, St. Lucie, and the Virgin Isles, are

SOUTH AMERICA.

EXTENT. THIS division of the new continent extends southward from the mountainous boundary between the provinces of Veragua and Panama, the latter province belonging to South America. But the land afterwards ascending considerably farther to the north, the length must be computed from about 12° of N. lat. to 54° S. lat. and yet farther if the Terra del Fuego be comprised. The length is at least sixty-six degrees, or 3960 g. miles; while the breadth, as already mentioned, is about 2880 g. miles.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. The original population of this large portion of the earth remains obscure, but may most probably have been from Africa, where copper-coloured nations with long hair have been recently disclosed. The constant trade winds, blowing from east to west, could scarcely fail to impel some rash African mariners to the American shores. Others seek the origination in the N. E. parts of Asia, where the shores of the two continents are but 40 miles apart, with numerous isles interspersed.

RELIGION. The religion of South America is in general the Roman Catholic, with the exception of the small Dutch territory, and the savage tribes.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. In these extensive regions the seasons vary much. The southern extremity is exposed to all the horrors of the antarctic frosts; and Terra del Fuego in the S. lat. of 55° seems exposed to the almost perpetual winter of Greenland in N. lat. 70° . On proceeding towards the north, the great chain of the Andes strangely contradict the theories of ancient geographers;

the chief inconveniences of this part of the torrid zone being extreme cold on the mountains, and extreme moisture in the plains. On the mountains, winter begins in December, which in the plains is the first month of summer; and a journey of four hours conducts the traveller from one season to another.

In general the confined regions on the west of the Andes are dry, the clouds being arrested by their summits; while the wide countries on the east of that chain are exposed to torrents of rain, from the eastern or trade winds blowing over the Atlantic. In Brazil the rainy season begins in March or April, and ends in August, when the spring begins, or rather the summer; the distinctions being only between wet and dry seasons.

LAKES. No part of the globe displays so great a number of extensive lakes as North America; and the southern part of the new continent is perhaps equally remarkable by their rarity. Many supposed lakes only exist during the annual inundations, which are on a far grander scale than those of the Ganges, and may be said to deluge whole provinces. In the most northern part the Lagoon of Maracaybo is remarkable, being a circular bason about 100 B. miles in diameter, receiving numerous rivers and rivulets, and communicating with the sea by a considerable creek. The celebrated lake Parima, called also Parana-pitinka or the White Sea, is represented by La Cruz as more than 100 B. miles in length by 50 in breadth; but this is thought to be an exaggeration.

The lake of Titicaca, in the kingdom of Peru, is regarded as the most important in South America. Ulloa says that it is of an oval figure, the circumference about 240 miles: and the depth 70 or 80 fathoms.

RIVERS. The river of Amazons, or Maranon, is celebrated as the most distinguished river, not only in South America, but in the whole world. The length may be estimated at about 2300 miles. The breadth at the Portuguese boundary is said to be a league, but it is generally about two miles; and no bottom is found at 103 fathoms. The effect of the tides is perceivable to the distance of 600 miles. The banks are generally crowned with vast forests of lofty trees, among which are many of a rare and medicinal nature. Serpents of prodigious size are found in the marshes, and alligators are also common.

After it has received the Shingu, the breadth from shore to shore cannot be discovered by the eye. Near its mouth the Bore rises from twelve to fifteen feet in height; and the noise of this irruption is heard at the distance of two leagues.

The Rio de la Plata, or river of Silver, is the conjunct flood of the Paraguay, the Pilcomayo, the Parana, and the Urucuary. The main streams are the Paraguay and the Parana; and it would seem that the latter is the longest and most considerable, rising in the great mine mountains of Brazil. This noble river is also studded with numerous islands; and Spanish vessels navigate to the town of Assumption, about 400 leagues from the sea: its length is estimated at 1900 miles. The breadth of the estuary is such, that the land cannot be discovered from a ship in the middle of the stream.

The third great river in South America is the Orinoco; of a most singular and perplexed course. It rises in the small lake of Ipava, N. lat. $5^{\circ} 5'$, and enters the Atlantic ocean by an extended delta opposite to the isle of Trinidad; but the chief estuary is considerably to the S. E. of that island. It has been ascertained that there are three communications between this river and the river Amazons; a circumstance which, in the possession of an industrious people, would open a most extensive inland navigation, and render Guiana, or New Andalusia, one of the most flourishing countries in the world.

MOUNTAINS. The mountains of South America constitute some of the grandest objects in natural geography, being not only the most lofty on the face of the globe, but intermixed with volcanoes of the most sublime and terrific description. The extent is also prodigious, the Andes stretching in one line from the capes of Isidro and Pilares, in the southern extremity of the continent, to the west side of the gulf of Darien, a space of not less than 4600 miles, as they generally follow the windings of the coast, at the medial distance of about one hundred miles. Chimborazo, the highest of these mountains, about 100 B. miles to the S. of Quito, and about ten miles to the N. of Riobamba, was computed to be 20,280 feet above the level of the sea, which is about 5000 feet, or one quarter higher than Mont Blanc. That part of Chimborazo which is covered with perpetual snow is about 2400 feet from the summit.

The next in height is supposed to be the volcano called Cotopashi, estimated at about 18,600 feet, and situated about twenty-five miles to the S. E. of Quito. Other grand summits are Pachincha, a few miles to the N. E. of Quito, the Altar, and Sanga to the S. E. of Chimborazo. These American Alps, clothed with perpetual snow, about two degrees to the N. of the equator, are not above one quarter their original height, and farther to the south they also greatly decrease in elevation.

A practical German mineralogist, employed for some years in the mines of Peru, informs us that the eastern spurs of the Andes sometimes present red and green granite and gneiss, as towards Cordova and Tucuman; but the grand chain chiefly consists of argillaceous schistus, or various kinds of thick slate, on which, in many places, are incumbent strata of limestone, and large masses of ferruginous sandstone. Amid the argillaceous schistus, the metals sometimes occur in veins of quartz, sometimes in alluvial layers of sandstone and iron sand. Near Potosi are irregular beds of large bullets of granite; and the celebrated mountain, so rich in silver ore, is chiefly composed of a firm yellow argillaceous slate, full of veins of ferruginous quartz, in which some of the best ores are found. In passing the highest ridge of the Andes, between Potosi and Lima, Helms still found argillaceous schistus the predominant substance in some places covered with alluvial layers of marl, gypsum, limestone, sand, fragments of porphyry, and even rock salt; yet rich silver occurs in abundance.

SPANISH DOMINIONS

IN SOUTH AMERICA.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES. THE possessions of Spain in the southern part of America are of prodigious extent from the Caribbean sea to the most southern promontory, according to the Spanish geographers; but the English maps seem justly to regard the regions to the south-east, inhabited by the Tehuels, and other tribes confessedly independent, as excluded from the Spanish domain, and of course open to the settlements of any foreign nation. The whole length of the Spanish possessions in America may thus be computed at more than 5000 g. miles; though not equal in extent, yet far superior in every other respect, to the Asiatic empire of Russia. On the east the boundary between the Spanish possessions and those of the Dutch and Portuguese, is mostly ascertained by ridges of mountains and rivers.

GOVERNMENT. The Spanish territories are parcelled into various departments. The grand divisions are, the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres; that of Peru, which includes Chili; and that of New Granada in the north: the capital of the first being Buenos Ayres, of the second Lima, and of the third Bogota, or Santa Fé de Bogota, N. lat. 4°.

POPULATION. The general population of South America being estimated at about 13,000,000, it is probable that the Spanish possessions contain about 9,000,000. The use of spirituous liquors, and the small pox, with another endemial disease which acts at intervals like a pestilence, obstruct the increase of the natives. The Spaniards and Creoles are far more numerous in New Spain than in South America, where it is probable that they do not exceed 2,000,000. The product of the mines of South America is supposed to be about 4,000,000*l.* sterling yearly; and the royal revenue perhaps amounts to 800,000*l.* which is mostly absorbed by the expenses.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The manners of the Spaniards in South America have been illustrated in many popular books of voyages. Among the native nations, the Peruvians are by far the most interesting, having in some instances advanced nearer to civilization than the Mexicans. Their buildings erected of stone still remain, while of the earthen edifices of the Mexicans, even the ruins have perished. The government of the Incas, or Peruvian monarchs, was a kind of theocracy, and the inhabitants revered a divine descent not claimed by the Mexican sovereigns. The religion of the Peruvians was that of love and beneficence; while the Mexicans seem in their cruel rites, to have been wholly influenced by the fear of malignant deities. The Mexican monarchy was founded by the sword, the Peruvian by superiority of wisdom; and the captives taken in war were not immolated, but instructed in the arts of civilization. Manures and irrigation were not unknown, and the great roads between Cuzco and Quito were wonderful, when estimated with the other parts of savage America. But amidst all these laudable qualities, it is to be regretted that superstition led them to sacrifice numerous victims on the death of a chief; and a favourite monarch was sometimes followed to the tomb by a thousand slaughtered servants.

LANGUAGE. The language of the ruling people in Peru was called the Quichua, and it is still cultivated by the Spanish clergy, as indispensable in the conversion of the natives. The sounds, *b, d, f, g, r*, are wanting. The grammar of this language, and it is said even that of the Tehuels, is nearly as variegated and artificial as the Greek.

CITIES. The chief cities in Spanish South America are Lima the metropolis, Buenos Ayres, and Bogota. Lima was founded by Pizarro, and is supposed to contain 54,000 inhabitants, scarcely more than a third part of the population of Mexico. The situation is in a pleasant and spacious vale, near a small river. The great square contains the viceroy's palace, and the cathedral. The streets are generally paved, and enlivened with little canals led from the river; but the houses are low, on account of the frequent earthquakes. The churches and convents are rich and numerous; and there is an university of some reputation. Rain is seldom or never seen, the clouds being attracted by the summits of the Andes. The most dreadful earthquake seems to have been that of 1747; when the

port of Callao was totally submerged, and of four thousand inhabitants only two hundred escaped.

Buenos Ayres was founded in 1535, receiving its name from the salubrity of the air. The population is supposed to be about 33,000. It is the great resort of passengers from Spain, who thence cross the country to Potosi, there being an uninterrupted post-road, with post-houses, and relays of horses and carriages, across the country to Peru. Bogota is rarely visited by travellers, and is little known.

Of the other chief towns, Carthagenia contains 25,000 souls; and Potosi about the same number; Popayan above 20,000; Quito 50,000. The manufactures of Spanish South America are inconsiderable. Among the exports are sugar, cotton, cocoa, Peruvian bark and Vicuna wool. But the chief exports are from the mines. From the official registers it appears that the coinage in Spanish America, from the first day of January to the last day of December 1790, was as follows: In gold 2,470,812, and in silver 25,906,023 piasters.

COMMERCE. The number of mines at work in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres alone, amounts to 30 of gold, 27 of silver, 7 of copper, 2 of tin, and 7 of lead.

Since the discontinuance of the galleons, and of the great fairs of Panama and Porto Bello, the commerce of Peru has been augmented by the arrival of merchant vessels from Spain by the way of Cape Horn. As the Spaniards have no settlements in Africa, the numerous negroes in their American colonies were chiefly supplied by the Dutch, and by the English, under what is called the *Assiento* or Contract, settled in the reign of Anne.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. Though horses and cattle were originally unknown to the new continent, surprising herds have been multiplied from a few that were turned loose by the first settlers: the cattle are hunted merely on account of the hides, and grow to a great size. The great numbers have lately been thinned by the thoughtless avarice of the hunters. Horses are also very numerous; and mules being indispensable in the alpine countries, where they cannot be reared, about eighty thousand are annually sent from the plains of Paraguay to Peru. The *Ilama*, or more properly *runa*, or Peruvian sheep which resembles a small camel, and will carry any

load under a hundred weight. The vicuna is somewhat smaller, with shorter and finer wool. The guanaca, on the contrary, is a larger and coarser animal than the runa, and chiefly employed in the mining countries, where other animals could not pass the precipitous paths. Among the ferocious animals are distinguished those called by Buffon the jaguar, or tiger; and the cougar, or the American lion. As the lions of Africa far exceed those of Paraguay in size and ferocity, so the African tigers yield in magnitude to those of Paraguay. Dobrizhoffer says, the skin of one killed was three ells and two inches in length, or equal to that of a large ox. They kill and carry off oxen and horses. In the great river Marañon there appears to be a species of hippopotamus. In the Alps towards Tucuman, the condor, the largest bird of the Vulture tribe, is not unfrequent. The ostrich is also found in the wide plains of Paraguay.

The vicinity of the coast produces many of the tropical fruits and vegetables, such as the cabbage palm, the cocoa nut, the chocolate nut, the cotton shrub, the pine apple, the canna, amomum, turmeric, plantain, and sugar cane. But in the high plain of Quito, and upon the sides of the Andes, perhaps the best known and most generally interesting of the trees are, the several species of cinchona, from which that valuable medicine the Peruvian or Jesuits' bark is procured; and a kind of coffee is met with in the mountainous groves of the interior, whose berries are applied to the same use as the cultivated species. No less than twenty-four species of pepper. The tobacco and jalap are found in the groves at the feet of the Andes.

MINERALS. The mineralogy of these extensive regions is universally celebrated as the most important in the world. In most accounts the mines of silver have been described at great length, while Brazil is considered as the chief country of American gold. But the noblest metal also abounds in the Spanish possessions here, as well as in Mexico. Near the village of Angamarca, in the jurisdiction of Latacunga, particularly was a mine of prodigious value. Gold is also found in the sand of many rivers that flow into the Marañon.

The celebrated mountain of Potosi has presented, for two centuries and a half, inexhaustible treasures of silver. This mountain, of a conic form, is about 20 B. miles in circumference, and perforated by more than three hundred

rude shafts. Of a peculiar dark reddish colour, this mountain rises void of all vegetation, blasted by the numerous furnaces, which in the night form a grand spectacle. This surprising mine was discovered, 1545, by Hualpa, a Peruvian, who in pursuing some chamoyos pulled up a bush, and beheld under the root that amazing vein of silver afterwards called *la rica* or the rich. He shared this discovery with his friend Huanca, who revealed it to a Spaniard his master; and the mine was formally registered 21st April, 1545.

Another celebrated mine is that of mercury, indispensable in amalgamating the precious metals. While Mexico is supplied from Spain, Peru has the native product.

Platina is chiefly found in the mines of Choco and Barbacoas, in the viceroyalty of New Granada. Tin according to Helms is found at Chayanza and Paria; and there are also several mines of copper and lead. The chief copper mine was at Aroa; but the colonies are mostly supplied from the mines at Cuba. In the time of the Incas, emeralds were also common, chiefly on the coast of Manta, where it is said that there are mines which the Indians will not reveal, as they must encounter the labour of working them.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. The natural curiosities of all descriptions are numerous and grand. The volcanoes, the Andes, the intersection of the chain by the Lauricocha, or false Maranon, and numerous cataracts, one of twelve hundred feet, are among the various scenes of these regions which are variegated with every feature of sublimity.

PORTUGUESE.

THE dominions in South America, held by the small kingdom of Portugal, extend from the frontier of Dutch Guiana, lat. 3° N. to Port St. Pedro, S. lat 32° being about 2100 g. miles: and the breadth, from Cape St. Roque to the farthest Portuguese settlement on the river of Amazons, called St. Paul de Omaguas, equals, if it does not exceed that extent. This vast territory, rivalling the empires of antiquity, is still more unknown than the Spanish possessions: as the greedy hound that has more than he can eat, hides the surplus. The chief city of Brazil was formerly

San Salvador, which has since yielded to Rio Janeiro. The others are Para and Cayta near the estuary of the Marañon, with a few small settlements on that river; Parnamboco, Sergippe, Paraíba, Villa Grande, &c. the chief settlements of the Portuguese being only thinly scattered along the shores.

“But all the provinces are growing fast into opulence and importance. They manufactured of late several of the most necessary articles for their own consumption; and their produce was so considerable that the balance of trade began to be already in their favour. The population of this large portion of South America has not been accurately detailed; but it would seem that the Portuguese and their descendants cannot amount to half a million, while the natives may be three or four millions. The diamond mines belong exclusively to the crown: and one-fifth of the gold is exacted. There are also numerous taxes and impositions, which instead of enlarging the revenues are the grand causes of its diminution; and the expenses of government consume about one-third of the million sterling, which Brazil is supposed to yield to Portugal. The convents and monasteries are numerous, and the manufactories rare. Labour is chiefly performed by slaves, about 20,000 negroes being annually imported; even the monks and clergy keep black slaves. The indigenes are said to be irreclaimable savages, under the middle size, muscular and active; of a light brown complexion, with straight black hair and long dark eyes. They chiefly subsist apart, on the coast between Janeiro and San Salvador.”

The harbour of Rio Janeiro is capacious and excellent; and surrounded by a fertile country. It is protected by the castle of Santa Cruz, erected on a huge rock of granite. On the west is the city of St. Sebastian, commonly called Rio de Janeiro, built on a tongue of land, the hills and rocks behind being crowned with woods, convents, houses, and churches. On a small isle are a dock yard, magazines, and naval store-houses. The streets are generally straight and well paved. Water is supplied by an aqueduct on the Roman plan. Yet the situation of this beautiful city is said to be unhealthy, owing to the exhalations from the primitive inland forests. There are manufactories of sugar, rum, and cochineal; and several districts produce cotton, indigo, coffee, cacao or chocolate, rice, pepper, and the noted Bra-

zilian tobacco. The red or Brazil wood is the property of the crown.

MINES. Concerning the celebrated mines of Brazil there is little information. The diamond mines are near the little river of Milboverde, not far from Villa Nova do Principe, in the province of Serro de Frio. This singular substance is not certainly known to be produced in any other part of the world, except Hindostan; but the diamonds of Brazil are not of so fine a water, being of a brownish obscure hue. In the northern provinces of Brazil there are numerous herds of wild cattle, which are slaughtered for the sake of the hides.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. The esculent plants are such as are common to all the tropical regions of America, among which may be distinguished the plantain, the banana, the cocoa nut, the chocolate nut, the yam, potatoe, cassava, together with numerous species of melons and gourds. Of fruits the number is scarcely to be reckoned; the principal of them are common to the East and West Indies. The warm aromatic plants that are found here are the ginger, the turmeric, several species of pepper, American coffee, capsicum or Guinea pepper, and the wild cinnamon or canella. Several medicinal plants of high estimation, grow here spontaneously and in abundance; these are the contrayerva, the Indian pink, the mechoacan, the jalap, the tree yielding the gum elemi, and the guaiacum. Woods for ornamental cabinet work, or for the use of the dyers, which are at present chiefly furnished by the Dutch, French, and English colonists of Guiana and the W. Indies, might be procured in equal perfection and variety from Brazil.

FRENCH.

THE French settlements in Guiana were first formed about the year 1635, and extend from the mouth of a small river called Amano, W. to another called Aracara E. containing 350 B. miles in length, by 240 in breadth. The chief town is on a small isle called Cayano, whence the whole territory is commonly styled Cayenne. The soil and climate in general seem unexceptionable; but the si-

tuation of the town being ill chosen, in a swampy isle, its disadvantages have been laxly ascribed to the whole possession. In the town are about 1200 white inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison. The Cayenne pepper is a noted product of this country, and other products are sugar, cocoa, vanilla, and indigo. The country is most noted as the place whither the French government has banished conspirators and other criminals.

DUTCH.

THE Dutch possessions in Guiana commenced in 1663: but four years afterwards they were expelled by the English, whose descendants form part of the colony resumed by the Dutch in 1676. Dutch Guiana is to the N. W. of the French settlement, and is often called Surinam from a river of that name, on which the capital is situated. The length S. E. to N. W. is about 350 B. miles, along the shores of the Atlantic: but the breadth is only 160. The chief towns are Paramaribo on the west bank of the Surinam, and new Middleburg near the N. W. extremity of the colony: Demerara is a settlement on a river of that name. The white inhabitants of the capital are computed at 1800. The largest river is the Esquivo. The Berbiz and Corentin are also considerable rivers. The wet and dry season alternate, each for three months. The natives are of a reddish brown or copper colour, like the other American tribes. Some are cannibals; but the Arrowaks are distinguished not only by elegance of form, but by mildness of disposition. They believe in a supreme deity, and in inferior malign spirits called Yawahoos.

All the usual tropical productions, except those that delight in dry and sandy tracts, are found here in full perfection.

Besides the common species of palms, there are two which are reckoned almost peculiar to this part of America. One of these, called the cokarito palm, is remarkable for its hard splintery wood, of which the small poisoned arrows are constructed. The other, the manicole palm, grows only in the deepest and most fertile soil, where it

attains the height of fifty feet, while its stem in the thickest part is scarcely nine inches in diameter. The annotta seems to be here in its favourite climate, as appears from its magnitude of growth and brilliancy of colour. The quassia, whose intense bitterness is become of late but too familiar to English palates, and the simarouba, a medicinal drug of great efficacy; nor among the materials which the healing art derives from this country ought we to omit the mention of the ricinus or castor oil nut, the cassia, the palm oil, the cowhage, the balsam of capivi, and ipecacuanha. An herbaceous plant called troolies grows here, whose leaves are the largest of any yet known, they lie on the ground, and have been known to attain the almost incredible length of thirty-feet, by three feet in width: most of the houses are thatched with it, and it will last some years without requiring repair.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO S. AMERICA.

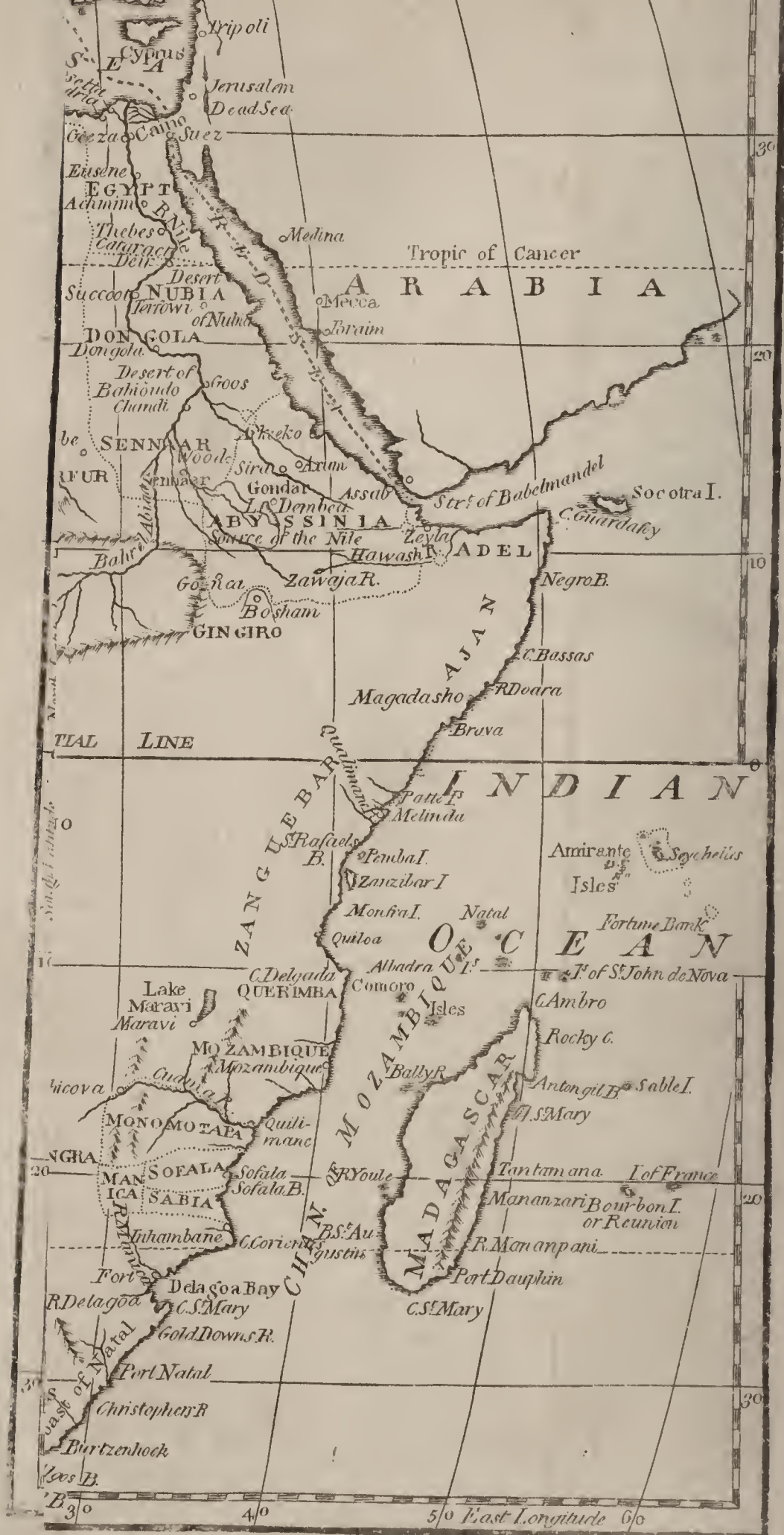
THESE shall be traced from the west towards the east. The isle of Juan Fernandez, so called from the first discoverer, is only about four leagues in length, with an anchoring place on the northern coast, which is diversified with many beautiful kinds of trees. It has been celebrated in the voyage of Anson.

There are two remarkable archipelagoes towards the southern extremity of this continent. The most remarkable isle in one is that of Chiloe, about 140 B. miles in length, by 30 in breadth. The chief harbour is Chacao on the N. and at Culbuco there is a corregidor, nominated by the president of Chili: there are also two monasteries and a church. The isle of Chiloe is said to be well peopled with Spaniards, mulattoes, and converted savages. In the second archipelago, which approaches the antarctic frosts, is the island of St. Martin, in which there seem to be some Spanish settlements or factories; and not far to the S. begins that broken series of wintry islands, called the Terra del Fuego, from two or more volcanoes, which vomit flames amidst the dreary wastes of ice. In the map of La Cruz the Terra del Fuego is divided by narrow straits into eleven islands of considerable size. This dreary region

is not however so completely oppressed by winter, as has by some been imagined, the vales being often verdant, and enlivened with brooks, while a few trees adorn the sides of the hills. The isle called Statenland is divided from the Terra del Fuego by the strait of Le Maire. Here also captain Cook observed wood and verdure. So much more severe is the cold in the antarctic region, that these countries only in lat. 55° , or that of the north of England, are more frozen than Lapland, in lat. 70° .

To the N. E. are the islands called Falkland Islands. In 1764 Commodore Byron was sent to take possession of these islands, which were undoubtedly first discovered by the English; and a little establishment was made at a place called Port Egmont, but being found of little or no value they were in a few years ceded to Spain. The soil is marshy, and even in summer there are perpetual storms; and the Spaniards seem only to retain a small factory in the north.







AFRICA.

*Extent.—Original Inhabitants.—Religion.—Climate.—
Rivers.—Mountains.—Deserts.*

THIS continent is, after Asia and America, the third in size; but in political and ethical estimation is the last and meanest of the four great divisions of the earth. From the southern extremity to the Mediterranean are about 70 degrees of latitude, or 4200 g. miles. The breadth, from 18° west to 51° east, may be assumed on the equator at 4140 g. miles. The central parts on the south appear to be the native regions of the negroes, whose colour, features, and hair distinguish them from all the other races of mankind. In the northern parts there have been many successions of inhabitants, the Egyptians and Abyssinians being of Arabian extract; while further to the west the Carthaginians passed from Syria: and according to Sallust, who refers to Punic manuscripts, other maritime parts were peopled by the Medes, Persians, and Armenians: both which appear to have been, in all ages, radically distinct from the negro race, from whom they were divided by the great desert of Zaara; and in the eastern parts the latter were yet farther repelled by the Arabian colony which settled in Abyssinia.

The Romans appear to have explored the north of Africa as far as the river Niger; and they established flourishing colonies in many parts. Upon the fall of their empire, the Vandals of Spain passed into Africa, A. D. 429, and established a kingdom which lasted till A. D. 535. In

the following century the Mahometan Arabs subdued the north of Africa; and under the name of Moors constitute a great part of the present population.

RELIGION. The ruling religion of this continent is the Mahometan, which has unfortunately penetrated farther in the interior than was at first conceived; and has presented a great obstacle to such travellers as, being unaware of this circumstance, have neglected the disguise and simulation, indispensable amidst such a fanatic and intolerant race. The *climate*, which in the north is intensely hot, is rather moderate in the southern extremity, the antarctic cold being more powerful than that of the other pole. In the centre it would appear that there is a prodigious ridge of mountains, extending from those of Kong in the west to those of Kumri, or of the moon, and those of Abyssinia in the east; the whole range being about N. lat. 10° . And from this another chain seems to extend, about long. 30° east from Greenwich, in a southern direction.

RIVERS. The chief river hitherto discovered is the Nile, which rises in the Gebel-el Kumr, or mountains of the moon, in a district called Donga, N. lat. 8° . It is first known by the name of Bahr el Abiad, or the White River; and about lat. 16° is joined by the Bahr el Azrek, or the Blue River; the former tinged, the latter clear. The comparative course of the Nile may be estimated at about 2000 B. miles, thus nearly rivalling the longest Asiatic rivers: and it is at any rate only supposed to be exceeded by the Ob, Kian Ku, and Hoan Ho; as it is by the Maranon, and probably by the Missouri. The Nile forms some considerable cataracts, the chief being that of Geanadil in Nubia, before it gains the level of Egypt, after passing some rapids to the S. of Syene. The other chief rivers are the Niger, and the Gir, the course of each being probably about 1000 B. miles. Those of Senegal and Gambia are also considerable. In the southern parts the Zahior Barbela of Congo, and the Zambezi of Mocaranga, are the most considerable yet known.

MOUNTAINS. The mountains of Atlas attracted the particular observation of the ancients, who fabled that they supported the firmament; and derived from them the celebrated appellations of the Atlantic Ocean, and the Atlantic Islands. So far as the materials will admit, the Atlas may be considered as extending from Cape Geer on

the Atlantic ocean in a N. E. direction, and giving source to many rivers flowing N. and S. till it expire in the kingdom of Tunis.

Along the western shores of the Arabian Gulf extends a celebrated ridge of red granite, which supplied the famous obelisks of Egypt. The high mountains of Abyssinia seem to branch from the great central chain already mentioned, or rather from its junction with that on the west of the Red Sea, and to terminate about lat. 25° , as the high mountains on the north of the European colony of the Cape pass E. and W. and the Orange River rising from their northern base is supposed to follow a N. W. and W. direction.

DESERTS. But the most striking feature of Africa consists in the immense deserts which pervade many parts of that continent. Of these the chief is that called *Zaara*, or *the Desert*, by eminence, stretching from the shores of the Atlantic, with few interruptions, to the confines of Egypt, a space of more than forty-five degrees, or about 2500 g. miles, by a breadth of twelve degrees, or 720 g. miles. This ocean of sand defies every exertion of human power or industry; but it is interspersed with various islands of different sizes, of which Fezzan is the chief which has yet been explored.

In arranging the following brief description of Africa, we shall begin with that of Abyssinia, as it is the chief native power, so far as hitherto discovered.

ABYSSINIA.

EXTENT. THIS kingdom which exceeds in antiquity and stability any other of the African states, extends about eleven degrees in length, from north to south, that is, about 660 geographical miles. The medial breadth is about eight degrees of longitude, in lat. 10° , or 572 g. miles. On the east the chief boundary is the Red Sea: and it is divided from the kingdom of Adel by an ideal line: on the south mountains and deserts seem to part it from Gingiro and Alaba, while on the west and north, mountains and forests constitute the barriers towards Kordofan and Sennaar. It is divided into provinces, of which Tigri is remarkable for the transit of commerce to the Arabian gulf; Gojam for the sources of the Astapus or fabled Nile of the Abyssinians; and Dembea for a noted lake, and Gondar the capital of the monarchy.

ORIGINAL POPULATION. It seems sufficiently established, that Abyssinia was peopled at a very early period, by a colony from the opposite shores of Arabia, as the people though darker, still retain Arabian features. As the Arabs impute every thing marvellous to Solomon, so these their descendants, in frequent habits of intercourse with them have adopted the same ideas, which are strengthened by religious fable and tradition. Hence the Abyssinian kings claim a descent from that monarch, in the same mode of reasoning as the Arabs deduce the noble genealogy of their steeds from the stalls of Solomon. In the sixteenth century they carried on some trade with Ceylon, and the Neguz, or king of Abyssinia, conquered the Arabian monarchy of the Homorites in Yemen; and a Roman ambassador appeared in the royal city of Axumé.

RELIGION, &c. The religion is the Christian, being derived from the Greek church A. D. 333. The *government* is absolute and hereditary, but with a kind of election in the royal family; and the king is saluted with prostration. A striking and romantic singularity was, that the princes were educated on a lofty and solitary mountain, a practice long since abandoned.—Concerning the *population* of this country there seems no authentic evidence. By Bruce's account it is extremely difficult to raise the royal army above thirty thousand: yet in so barbarous a state it might be concluded that every tenth person joins the army, but so thin a population is incredible.—The royal *revenues* consist of the rude products of the various provinces, the use of money being unknown, though gold be found in the sand of the rivers. One of the chief articles is cattle, which are numerous, and sold at a low price.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The natives are of a dark olive complexion; and the dress a light robe, bound with a sash, the head being covered with a kind of turban. The houses are of a conic form, meanly built of clay, and covered with thatch; and even the churches are of a round form encircled with a portico.—Christianity seems to hold but a slight influence over the manners and morals, and the priests are little respected. Even religion sometimes bends before the influence of climate, and polygamy is not unknown among these Christians, the kings in particular having frequently many wives and concubines.—The only meal is commonly in the evening, and the abstinence of lent is carefully preserved. The common beverages are mead and a kind of beer.—The neguz or king is considered as the sole proprietor of the land, while private property is restricted to moveable goods.—The language is regarded as an ancient offspring of the Arabic, and is divided into various dialects. It is probably allied to the Coptic, the Egyptians passing from the north of ancient Arabia, and the Abyssinians from the south.

CITIES. The chief city in modern times is Gondar, situated upon a hill. According to Bruce it contains ten thousand families, that is about fifty thousand souls. The palace, or rather house of the neguz, is flanked with square towers, from the summit of which was a view of the southern country, as far as the lake of Tzana or Dembea.—Axum, the ancient capital, is still known by ex-

tensive ruins, among which are many obelisks of granite, but without hieroglyphics. The other towns are few and unimportant.—The manufactures and commerce are of small consequence, the latter being chiefly confined to Masua on the Red sea.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS. The climate is tempered by the mountainous nature of the country. From April to September there are heavy rains; and in the dry season of the six succeeding months the nights are cold. Abyssinia is one of the most mountainous and precipitous countries in the world; but in a few vales the soil is black and fertile.—The chief river is the Bahr el Azrek, or Abyssinian Nile, which has a spiral origin like the Orinoco. The chief spring is in a small hillock, situated in a marsh. The sources of the real Nile or Bahr el Abiad, in the alps of Kumri, remain to be explored. Receiving no auxiliary streams on its long progress through Egypt, the Nile is singularly narrow, and shallow, when compared with other rivers of far shorter course. Two other rivers the Hanazo and the Hawash, flow in an opposite direction, towards the entrance of the Red sea, but the first is said to be lost in the sands of Adel.

LAKES. The chief lake is that of Tzana, also called Dembea, from a circumjacent province. This lake is pervaded by the Nile in its circular progress, as the lake of Parima by the Orinoco, being about 60 B. miles in length by half that breadth: but the extent differs greatly in the dry and wet seasons.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The sycamore fig, the tamarind, the date, the coffee, a large tree used in boat-building, called by Bruce, rack, and two species of acacia, though probably not the principal trees, are almost the only ones that have hitherto been described. The arborescent euphorbiae are found on some of the dry mountains. A shrub, called in the language of the country, wooginoos, is celebrated by the British traveller for its medicinal virtues, in dysenteries. A large esculent herbaceous plant analogous to the banana, is largely cultivated by the natives as a substitute for bread. The papyrus is found here in shallow plashes as in Egypt; and the trees that yield the balsam of Gilead, and the myrrh, are represented by the above mentioned traveller as natives of Abyssinia.

The horses are small but spirited, as usual in alpine countries. Cattle and buffaloes are numerous. Among wild animals are the elephant, rhinoceros, lion, panther; and it is said the giraff or camelopardalis. The hyena is also frequent, and singularly bold and ferocious, so as even to haunt the streets of the capital in the night. There are also wild boars, gazelles or antelopes, and numerous tribes of monkeys. The hippopotamus and crocodile swarm in the lakes and rivers. Among the birds is the golden eagle of great size, but water fowl are rare. The most remarkable insect is a large fly, from whose sting even the lion flies with trepidation.—Gold is found in the sand of the rivers. Fossil salt is found on the confines of Tigri. It is said that there are no gems, and that even the royal diadem is decorated with imitations.

EGYPT.

EXTENT, &c. THIS country, celebrated from the earliest ages of antiquity, and recently a distinguished scene of British valour, both by sea and land, is about 500 miles in length from north to south; and, including the greater and lesser Oasis, about half that breadth. But this appearance is merely nominal; Egypt being in fact a narrow vale on both sides of the river Nile; bounded by parallel ridges of mountains or hills. It seems to have been originally peopled from the northern parts of Arabia, or from Syria; the Egyptians and Abyssinians having been in all ages wholly distinct from the native nations of Africa. A late intelligent traveller remarks that "a strong resemblance may be traced between the form of visage in the modern Copts, and that presented in the ancient mummies, paintings and statues. Their complexion, like that of the Arabs, is of a dusky brown; and is represented of the same colour in the paintings in the tombs of Thebes."

RELIGION, &c. The ruling religion in Egypt is the Mahometan; but there are many Christian Copts who have their priests and monasteries. The government is at present unsettled, but will probably return to the aristocracy of the Beys and Mamlukes. Mr. Browne estimates the population of Egypt at two millions and a half; of whom the city of Cairo may contain 300,000. The revenue under the Beys might perhaps be about one million sterling.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, &c. A general similarity pervades the manners of Mahometan countries, as the Koran regulates most springs of human life: the fanaticism against the Franks or Europeans was extreme, but may perhaps be somewhat moderated by the recent terror of their arms. The Copts are an ingenious people, and have

great skill in business; whence they are generally employed by the Mahometans as writers and accomptants.—The heat of the climate enforces an abstemious diet; and the houses even at Cairo are mostly miserable dirty hovels.—The common people are disgustingly filthy in their persons. But in the classes somewhat more at ease the Coptic women have interesting features, large black eyes; and, though of short stature, have often elegant shapes.—The Coptic language is now only known in manuscripts, the Arabic being universally used.

CITIES. The chief city is Cairo, or in the oriental enunciation Kahira. This celebrated metropolis is on the east side of the Nile, connected by two suburbs with the river. The population is already mentioned. The streets are narrow in order to guard against the sun; and there is an interior wide canal styled the Chalige, the stench of which is occasionally intolerable, though the chief street pass along its shore. The principal mosk is ornamented with pillars of marble, and Persian carpets, and has a library of manuscripts. There are many reservoirs for water, public baths, and bazars or markets, where each trade has its allotted quarter. The houses are mostly of sand stone from the mountain behind; and are sometimes three stories high with flat roofs. The harams, or apartments of the women, are expensively furnished; but those of the men neat and plain. On Friday a mosk without the walls is frequented by the ladies as a pilgrimage of pleasure. There are light boats, like Venetian gondolas, used on the increase of the Nile; and among the amusements are dancing girls, and rope-dancers; the chief games being chess, and Polish draughts. On solemn occasions fire-works are exhibited.

Next in consequence are Alexandria, Rosetta or Raschid, and Damiata. Upper Egypt no longer boasts of a Thebes; and even Girgi, formerly the capital of this part, begins to decline.

COMMERCE. Though Egypt has ceased to be the centre of oriental trade, and the granary of Rome, yet the delta still exports great quantities of rice; and Upper Egypt supplies some cargoes of wheat. Flax is sent to Syria, and coffee and black slaves to Constantinople. Alexandria was the chief seat of European trade, which thence passed by Raschid to Cairo. Particular exports were carthamus and senna; and about eight hundred bales of European broad

cloth were imported. The trade of Damietta is of small consequence.

CLIMATE. The climate of Egypt is well known to be peculiar, rain being a most uncommon phenomenon. The heat is also extreme, particularly from March to November; while the cool season or a kind of spring extends through the other months.—The chief malady seems to be a weakness of the eyes, and blindness is very common in Egypt.—The plague has been erroneously supposed to originate from Ethiopia, where it is quite unknown; and in Egypt it is supposed to be always imported from Constantinople. The extreme heat stops it here, as effectually as the cold in other countries.

Of far the greater part of Egypt the aspect is that of a narrow fertile vale, pervaded by the Nile, and bounded on either side by barren rocks and mountains. The towns and cultivation are chiefly on the eastern bank; behind which are vast ranges of mountains extending to the Arabian gulf, abounding with marble and porphyry, but almost destitute of water, and only inhabited by Bedouins. On the west the hills lead to a vast sandy desert, where are the two Oases, a name applied to islands situated in sand. Except in the Delta the lands are generally watered by machines. According to a late traveller, the soil in general is so rich as to require no manure. It is a pure black mould free from stones, and of a very tenacious and unctuous nature. From Cairo to Assuan, or Syene, a distance of about 360 miles, the agriculture is of the simplest kind, the chief article being wheat, with barley for the horses; oats being scarcely known in Asia or Africa. In the delta rice is the chief grain, with maize and lentils. The lands chiefly belong to the government or to the mosks.

RIVERS. The only river of Egypt is the Nile, already described in the general view of Africa. Its greatest breadth, even here, is about one-third of a mile; and the depth about twelve feet. The water is muddy; when it overflows, of a dirty red; and cloudy even in April and May. The river begins to rise about the 19th of June, and it ceases in October.

LAKES. There are several extensive lakes in the northern parts of Egypt, the largest being that of Menzala which communicates with the sea by one or two outlets. Next is that of Berelos, followed by that of Elko. The

lake of Mareotis, on the south of Alexandria, has become almost dry. The Natron Lakes must not be forgotten, being so called from their production of natron or mineral alkali. They are situated in the desert near a remarkable channel, supposed to have been anciently a branch of the Nile, and still called the Bahr Belame, or river without water.

MOUNTAINS. The mountains have been already described as ranging along the banks of the Nile, but chiefly between that river and the Red Sea.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The lotus and papyrus have always been the appropriate decorations of the god of the Nile: the former of these is a species of water lily, which at the retreat of the inundation covers all the canals and shallow pools with its broad round leaves, among which are its cup-shaped blossoms of pure white, or cærulean blue, reposing with inimitable grace on the surface of the water. The papyrus, sacred to literature, after having long vanished from the borders of the Nile, has at length been again recognised on its banks and in the shallow plashes of the Delta. The arum colocasia of ancient fame is still cultivated in Egypt for its large esculent roots. The Egyptian sycamore fig, the date palm, the pistachia, the oriental plane, and the bead tree, adorn the shore, and are cultivated in the vicinity of most of the towns. The cypress overshadows the burial grounds, and the caperbush roots itself in the ruins of Egyptian, Greek, and Roman civilization. The senna, the mimosa nilotica, and the henné, the almond, the orange, pomegranate, fig, peach, apricot, the plantain, sugar-cane, and cotton, are cultivated here with great assiduity and success.

The animals of Egypt have been repeatedly described. A French naturalist seems recently to have demonstrated from the size of the bones, and other circumstances, that the noted ibis of the ancients was not a kind of stork, as commonly conceived, but a curlew.

Between Egypt and Abyssinia is an extensive tract, about 600 miles in length, and 500 in breadth, by the ancients styled ETHIOPIA, but more precisely by the Arabian geographers called NUBIA. The greatest part of it is occupied by wild deserts on the east and west; but on the Nile are two states which Bruce represents as peopled by a deceitful and ferocious race.

MAHOMETAN STATES

IN THE NORTH.

Tripoli.—Tunis.—Algier.—Morocco.

THESE are Tripoli, Tunis, Algier, and Morocco. Of these *Tripoli* is most extensive, and the least known. The territories reach from the gulf of Cabes, the lesser Syrtis of antiquity, to the confines of Egypt, being chiefly the Africa proper, and Lybia of the ancients: but a great part is desert. Tripoli does not appear to be ancient. It was besieged by the Egyptians, A. D. 877, and A. D. 1050. In 1146 it was seized by the Normans from Sicily, who held this coast till 1159. The power of the Turks is recent, only dating from 1514, when Barbarossa seized Algier; but it has continued more peculiarly at Tripoli, where the Bey was considered as immediately subject to the Porte, a Turkish Pasha superintending his conduct; and the combined taxations have effectually ruined the country. The town of Tripoli is in a low situation, but to the S. are plantations of date trees and verdant hills, which relieve the tameness of the scene. It is in a state of rapid decay, scarcely four miles in circumference, and thinly peopled; the ancient castle, though still the residence of the reigning family being in a ruinous condition. There are olive and date trees, white thorn, and Spanish broom; but the fields of grain are few and scanty. Towards Mesurarta the vegetation is more luxuriant; but of the ancient Cyrene an interesting spot, there is no recent account.

Next on the west is *Tunis*, the central region of northern Africa, the western part of the proper Africa of antiquity, and formerly the chief seat of Carthaginian power. In the middle ages Tripoli was subject to Tunis, which was seized by Barbarossa in 1533. The chief river is the Mejerda, the Bagrada, of classical repute. The cattle are small and slender, and the horses have degenerated. The sheep of Zaara are as tall as fallow deer. There are lions, panthers, hyenas, chakals, and other ferocious animals. The manufactures are velvets, silks, linen, and red caps worn by the common people. In general the Tunisians are renowned as the most polite and civilized among the Mahometans of Africa. The town of Tunis is about three miles in circumference, containing about ten thousand houses, or perhaps 50,000 souls. The chief exports seem to be woollen stuffs, red caps, gold-dust, lead, oil, Morocco leather: and the commerce with France was considerable.

Algier may be regarded as the last Mahometan state on the Mediterranean, for Morocco is chiefly extended along the Atlantic. In the thirteenth century Africa was first divided into those petty royalties, which still subsist with few variations. In 1514 Barbarossa seized Algier, which afterwards became a noted seat of pirates. This city is not above a mile and a half in circuit, while the inhabitants are exaggerated to more than a hundred thousand, but probably half that number would be nearer the truth. It is ludicrous to behold this power exacting tribute from the maritime states of Christendom, while two ships of war maintained at the general expense, might block up the port, and extinguish the claims and the piracy. The kingdom of Algier chiefly comprises the Numidia and part of the Mauritania of the ancients, being bounded on the S. by Getulia and the chains of the Atlas, called Lowat and Ammer. The productions are in general the same with those of Tunis. There are many salt rivers and springs, and there is a mountain of salt near the lake, called Marks.

Morocco, or the ancient Mauritania, consists indeed of several small kingdoms, as the old English monarchy was composed of the seven kingdoms of the heptarchy; but the style of emperor seems to have arisen in the fourteenth century, when the sultan of Morocco was for a short time sovereign of all the northern states of Africa. The kingdom of Fez has been united to Morocco, since it first be-

came an independent sovereignty in the thirteenth century. In the hands of an industrious people the kingdom of Morocco might still be of considerable importance; but, from ignorance and want of policy, the western harbours are, by Mr. Lempriere's report, blocked up with sand; so that Morocco may be effaced from the list of maritime powers or pirates.—In the summer months the heat is tempered by breezes from Mount Atlas, always clothed with snow.

The Moors of the towns are somewhat civilized, particularly the mercantile class, and the wandering Arabs hospitable, but the Brebes or Brebers, who gave name to Barbary, are a fierce and obstinate race of the ancient natives.—The universal food is *coscosu*, consisting of bits of paste about the size of rice crumbled into an earthen colander, and cooked by the steam of boiled meat and vegetables, which are all served up together in an earthen dish, with butter and spices. This stew in which nothing is lost, even the steam being received by the paste, is the favourite meal of the peasant and the monarch.—The domestic animals are much the same as those of Europe, except the camel; and dromedaries of great swiftness are procured from Guinea. The oxen and sheep are small but well flavoured; fowls and pigeons plentiful, but ducks rare, and geese and turkeys unknown. There is plenty of game; and storks are common, being free from molestation.—The city of Morocco is situated in a fertile plain, variegated with clumps of palm trees and shrubs, and watered by several lucid streams from the Atlas: the extent is considerable, surrounded by very strong walls of *tabby*, a mixture of stone and mortar which becomes as hard as a rock. The chief buildings are the royal palace and the mosks; and there is a considerable *jewry* or quarter inhabited by Jews. The palace consists of detached pavilions, as common in the east; and even the mosks are squares with porticoes, like that of Mecca, the climate not requiring a covered edifice like our churches, or the Turkish mosks, often originally Christian edifices.—The dress of the Moors is rather singular; and the ladies not only paint their cheeks and chins with deep red, but make a long black mark on their forehead, another on the tip of the nose, and several on the cheeks. The women of the haram are ignorant and childish, their employments being chatting in circles and eating *coscosu*.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The territory now occupied by the Barbary or piratical states, extending from the frontiers of Egypt to the Atlantic ocean in one direction, and from the Mediterranean Sea to the Great Desart in the other, includes a tract of country proverbial in better times for its never failing fertility.—The soil partaking of the general character of Africa is light and sandy with intervening rocks, though the vales of Mount Atlas, and of the small streams that descend into the Mediterranean are overspread with a deep rich well-watered mould.—The dry and rocky intervals between the valleys of the interior, bear a near resemblance to the heaths of Spain; like these they abound in scattered groves of cork trees and ever-green oaks, beneath whose shade the sage, the lavender, and other aromatic plants are found abundantly, and in high perfection.—The valleys and glens are profuse of beauty and fragrance; besides the bay, the myrtle, the pomegranate, the olive, the jasmine, and oleander, which are common both to Africa and the south of Europe, we find here, in a truly wild state, the Aleppo pine, the red juniper, the date-palm, the pistachia, the orange, and, superior even to the orange blossom in odour, the white musk rose.

THE WESTERN COAST.

Jalofs, Foulahs, and other Tribes.—Benin.—Loango.—Congo.

ON this side of Africa, so far as hitherto explored, are innumerable tribes, as little meriting particular description as those of America. The Jalofs or YoloFs and Foulahs, are the chief races on the rivers Senegal and Gambia; while Guinea, divided into the Grain or more properly Windward coast, Ivory coast, and Gold coast, chiefly supplies slaves, a trade which commenced in 1517 by a patent from the emperor Charles V. obtained at the instance of Las Casas, the noted protector of the American savages. The settlements in Guinea are chiefly Portuguese; and the slaves from the river Senegal are called Mandingos, from an inland country of that name; while those from the gold coast are called Koromantees; and those towards Benin Eboes. For these slaves British goods have been exported to the annual value of 800,000*l*.——The forts and factories belonging to Europeans are about forty; 15 Dutch, 14 English, 4 Portuguese, 4 Danish, 3 French.

The countries of Benin and Calabar, which seem to afford the easiest access towards the interior, are followed by other savage tribes.——The kingdoms of Congo and Angola are celebrated in Portuguese narrations.——To the south of these there is deep obscurity till we arrive at the nations or tribes called Great and Little Nemakas, and Kaffers or Koussis, on the north of the European colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

The repeated description of the manners of negro tribes would little interest the reader, and only a few peculiarities shall be remarked. The Yalofs are an active and warlike race, and esteemed the most handsome of the negroes.—The Mandingos are widely diffused, and of a mild and sociable disposition. They wear cotton frocks of their own manufacture; but their hats and furniture are of the simplest kind.—The Foulahs, near the river Gambia, are chiefly of a tawney complexion, with silky hair and pleasing features, being probably tribes that fled from Mauretania. The Foulahs of Guinea are of a very different description, and the identity of name ought to have been avoided.—Tecombo, the capital of the latter, contains about 7000 inhabitants; and there are iron mines worked by women, besides some manufactures in silver, wood, and leather.—These Foulahs, it is said, can bring into the field not less than 16,000 cavalry; and being surrounded by twenty-four Pagan nations or tribes, these Mahometans never hesitate to make war for the sake of procuring slaves.—To the west of these Foulahs is the English settlement of Sierra Leone, formed in 1787, for the benevolent purpose of promoting African civilization.

The kingdom of Benin is asserted to be very considerable. The inhabitants are said to acknowledge a supreme benevolent deity, whose worship they deem superfluous, as he can neither be influenced, enraged, nor appeased; but they offer sacrifices to inferior and malignant spirits, in order to soothe their enmity.

Loango is a country of no small extent, on the N. of Congo. The people are industrious, as there are weavers, smiths, potters, carpenters, and makers of canoes, caps, and beads. The exports are elephant's teeth, copper, tin, lead, iron. The common people are held in a kind of slavery, but many migrate. Even the mountains are of mere clay, without rock or stone: and the rivers do not increase in the rainy season. The soil seems to be wholly a compact clay, which sometimes splits into vast abysses. Vegetation however flourishes; and among the trees are the cocoa, banana, orange, lemon, pimento, with the cotton shrubs, and sugar-cane. The palm wine, a favourite African beverage, is procured by piercing the tree where the fruit begins to swell from the trunk.

In Congo, October may be called the spring month, but heavy rains continue for two or three months. About the end of January is one harvest; and in March more gentle rains commence and continue till May, when there is a second dry season or harvest; their nominal winter beginning in July.—The houses are round thatched hovels, even in the chief city called St. Salvador by the Portuguese.—The Congoese have the negro colour without the features, which rather resemble the European; hair sometimes of a deep reddish brown, and eyes of a dark green or sea colour. Once a year the graves are opened, and the bodies or bones decorated. This custom seems peculiar to Africa and America.—Congo produces millet, maize, and excellent fruits; with the sugar-cane, and varieties of the palm.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. This coast appears in general to be sufficiently well watered, and accordingly bears a striking resemblance in its vegetable productions to the opposite shore of the American continent. The usual plants found in the tropical climates are found here in perfection and in great abundance. The low shores of the rivers, as far as the tide reaches, are bordered with mangroves and bamboos: the luxuriant Guinea grass, the sugar cane, ginger, turmeric, and cocoa-nut, with various other species of palms, root themselves in the moist deep soils. Indigo and cotton of a superior quality are met with, both wild and cultivated. The sweet cassava, the Guinea pepper, the yam, sweet potatoe, rice, maize, gourds and melons of all kinds, are the principal food of the inhabitants, and probably are indigenous.

COLONY
OF THE
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THIS territory, upon the recent English conquest, was found to be of more considerable extent than had been supposed, being 550 English miles in length, and 233 in breadth, comprehending an area of 120,150 square miles. The white inhabitants, exclusive of Cape Town, do not exceed 15,000, and the whole may be about 20,000.—The Dutch settlement was formed in 1660.—To the S. E. of Cape Town are some small vineyards, which yield the noted wine called Constantia; and even in remote districts there are plantations of various kinds; but large tracts are irrecoverably barren, consisting of ranges of mountains, and level plains of hard clay sprinkled with sand, commonly called *karroos*.—The country is more fertile towards the Indian ocean than towards the Atlantic, a character which seems to pervade Africa, as on the east is Abyssinia, while on the west is the Zaara.—The chief resorts of trading vessels are False Bay on the S. and Table Bay on the N. which opens to Cape Town.—There are some wolves and hyenas, and various kinds of antelopes; and among birds, eagles, vultures, kites, crows, turtle doves, &c. more inland are all the wild and ferocious animals of Africa, and hippopotami abound in the rivers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The botany of southern Africa is more rich and peculiar than that of any other country, and most of the singular and beautiful inhabitants of our stoves and green houses have been hence procured. The class of bulbous-rooted plants alone might be selected, if we had room for the enumeration, as peculiarly characteristic of the Cape, for nowhere else are they found so abundant, so various, or so splendid, while such of them as assume the height and character of trees, mixed with the weeping willow and minosae of various kinds, overspread the banks of the temporary torrents. The forests furnish the iron wood, the African oak, the Hassagia wood, the yellow wood, a few species of *Zamia* or Sago palm, the scarlet flowered guaiacum, and the incomparably splendid *strelitsia reginæ*.

THE EASTERN COAST.

Natal.—Delagoa.—Mocaranga.—Mozambic, &c.—Adel.

ON leaving the colonial possessions, in this direction, first appear the Kaffers, or properly Koussis, and the Tambookies, beyond whom there is deep obscurity. What is called the coast of Natal is followed by the bay of Delagoa.

One of the chief rivers which enters this bay is the Masmumo: and the natives on the northern and southern banks follow distinct customs, the men on the former wearing singular helmets of straw. On the southern side are fourteen chiefs, subject to a king called Capelleh, whose dominion extend about 200 miles inland, and about 100 on the sea shore. Cattle and poultry are abundant, and may be purchased for a trifle; the favourite articles being blue linens, old clothes, brass rings, copper wire, large glass beads, tobacco, pipes, &c. The fish are numerous and excellent, and turtle is taken on Deer Island.—The soil is a rich black mould, sown with rice or maize in December or January; the dry season lasting from April till October. There are many fruit trees and useful plants, particularly the sugar-cane; but no horses, asses, nor buffaloes.—The wild animals are the tiger, rhinoceros, antelope, hare, rabbit, wild hog, with guinea hens, partridges, quails, wild geese, ducks, and some small singing birds.—The natives are Kaffers, that is Pagans, of a bright black colour, tall and stout; they go nearly naked, and are tattooed.

The most civilized and powerful kingdom seems to be that of Mocaranga, absurdly called Monomotapa. The soil of this country is said to be fertile, though the plains

be exposed to great heat.—The people are almost naked, and, like those of the western coast, superstitiously afraid of magical charms. According to the doubtful accounts of this country, the king, on days of ceremony, wears a little spade hanging by his side, as an emblem of cultivation.—The children of the great are retained at court as hostages; and the king sends annually an officer to the provinces; when the people testify their fidelity by extinguishing their fires, and kindling others from the officer's torch.—The emperor's guard is said to consist of women lightly armed.—The Portuguese have here two fortresses, and another station near the mountains of Fura, which are said to abound in gold.

The kingdom of Mozambique or Mozambico is considered as subject to the Portuguese, who had a considerable town of the same name, situated in an isle, the governor being dependent on the viceroy of Goa.—Zanguebar is said to be a marshy and unhealthy country, but abundant in elephants: it is chiefly inhabited by the Mocuas, partly Pagans, partly Mahometans.—The little kingdom of Quiloa is also dependent on the Portuguese, with that of Mombaza, from which they were expelled in 1631, but regained their possessions in 1729.—Melinda, a Mahometan state, is also partly dependent on the Portuguese, who have a fortress in the city, and several churches.—The coast of Ajan is chiefly Mahometan, and carries on a considerable trade in ivory, ambergris, and gold.—Brava, a little aristocracy, pays tribute to the Portuguese, who have not been able to encroach on Magadasho, or on the kingdom of Adel, which last was dependent on Abyssinia, and is said to be a fertile country. This state was founded by a Mahometan prince at the beginning of the sixteenth century, the capital being Auzagurel, standing on an eminence near the river Awast, which comes from Abyssinia: and Zeila, on the Arabian gulf, is a considerable port.

THE ISLE OF MADAGASCAR.

THIS noble island is about 340 g. miles in length, by about 220 of medial breadth. It seems to have been unknown to the ancients; for the first certain mention of Madagascar is by Marco Polo, in the thirteenth century. At this time it would seem that the Mahometan religion had made some progress there.

Rochon informs us that this island may contain about two hundred millions of acres of excellent land, watered by rivers and rivulets, from a long chain of mountains passing in the direction of the island, and separating the eastern from the western coast. The scenery is diversified with precipices, cataracts, and immense forests. The flax, from the description, seems to approach that of New Zealand; other products are, sugar canes, cocoa nuts, bananas, tobacco, indigo, pepper, gum lacca, benzoin, amber, ambergris, &c. and the variety of valuable plants is prodigious.—Cattle, buffaloes, and sheep abound. There are no lions, tigers, elephants, nor horses.—Many of the most valuable minerals occur, among which are beds of pure rock crystal, gold ore, with topazes, sapphires, emeralds, and spotted jaspers, commonly called blood stones.—The natives are rather above the middle stature, and are of various origins; some being negroes, others tawney or copper coloured; but the complexion of the greater part is olive.—The French settlement of Port Dauphin is in the S. E. extremity of the island. Almost all the villages are built upon eminences, and surrounded by two rows of strong palisades, within which there is a parapet of earth, four feet in height; and sometimes there is a ditch, ten feet

in breadth and six in depth.—Their chiefs are only known by their red caps, worn by the common Moors. Their authority is inconsiderable, yet they are sometimes regarded as proprietors of the land, and receive a small quit-rent.—Writing is not unknown, and there are some historical books in their native tongues, with Arabic characters.—The paper is made of papyrus, and the ink is the decoction of a certain bark.—The whole island is said to have been conquered by the Arabs about three hundred years ago: but of Mahometanism there are only faint traces.—The native blacks are classed as descendants of the ancient chiefs, and preserve their right of killing animals, and regard the profession of a butcher as the most honourable. The next class cannot kill animals, but have some privileges unknown to the Ontzoa, or third cast. The Ondeves, or *lost men*, are slaves by extraction.—Polygamy seems confined to the chiefs: the women are lively and cheerful, and form the chief delight of their husbands.

Of esculent plants growing here there are the rice, banana, yam, nymphaea lotos, several kinds of kidney bean, gourds, and water melons, and cocoa nuts. The fruits are pine apples, tamarinds, oranges, and pomegranates. The spices and other condiments are common, and betel pepper, ginger, turmeric, cinnamon, and sugar. The Indian fig grows here, as also does the ebony, the bamboo, the cotton, and indigo.

THE SMALLER AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Pemba.—Comoro.—Mauritius and Bourbon.—Kerguelen's Land.—St. Helena.—Ascension.—Cape Verd Islands.—Canaries.—Madeira.

THE islands of Pemba, Zanzibar, and Monfia, are opposite to the coast of Zanguebar. Pemba is said to be about 100 miles in circumference, governed by a king, who pays tribute to Portugal: to which power the two others are said to be subservient.

The islands of Comoro are four in number. That of Anzoan has a convenient harbour, sometimes visited by ships passing to India. These isles are governed by Pagan or Mahometan chieftains, tributary to the Portuguese; and are reported to be very fertile in rice, oranges, lemons, sugar, cocoa, and ginger; the natives carrying on some trade with the Portuguese of Mozambico.

To the east of Madagascar are the Islands of Mauritius or France, and Bourbon, French settlements well known in the commercial world. The Isle of France has a tolerable port, the centre of the oriental force and commerce of the French. The Isle of Bourbon, colonized in 1654, is about fifty leagues in circumference, of a circular form, rising to high mountains in the centre; and there is a noted volcano, difficult of access, the eruptions of which are frequent.—Mauritius, or the Isle of France, was first possessed by the Dutch, who abandoned it in 1712, and the French settlement began to acquire some stability under Bourdonnais in 1734. There are two crops every year of wheat and Indian corn, but manioc was the food of the negroes.—The Isle of Bourbon produces sugar canes, and in both the cat-

tle are numerous.—In 1766 M. Poivre, author of the Voyage of a Philosopher, was governor of these isles, and the advantages of appointing men of science to such stations was evident from his introduction of the bread-fruit tree, and also of the nutmeg and cinnamon.

Far to the south lies Kerguelen's Land, so called from a recent French navigator. It is described in the last voyage of Cook, to which the curious reader is referred.

The south is here the region of cold and desolation, and on proceeding towards the north the scene improves.—St. Helena is a beautiful island, possessed by about three hundred English families, the governor residing in a fort with a small garrison.—There is a village, with a church, in Chapel valley.—The planters are occupied with their cattle, hogs, and poultry; but when East India ships arrive each house becomes a little tavern.—This interesting isle was discovered by the Portuguese, who stocked it with animals and fruit trees; but there was no settlement when the English took possession about the year 1600.—There is only one harbour, which is difficult of access.—The isle of Ascension, between Africa and Brazil, was discovered in 1508; and has an excellent harbour, frequented by homeward bound ships, who here find turtle and sea-fowl.

On approaching the African shore to the north of Congo, and passing St. Matthew, where the Portuguese have a small settlement, first appears the isle of Annabon, followed by St. Thomas, Prince's Isle, and that of Fernando Po. The Isle of St. Thomas was discovered and settled by the Portuguese about 1460. The soil is remarkably strong and fertile, domestic animals abound, and the produce of sugar is prodigious. There is a bishop, who is a suffragan of Lisbon. The town Pavoacan is on the eastern side of the island. Prince's Island is also fertile, with a good harbour, and a town of about two hundred houses on the northern shore; it is inhabited by about forty Portuguese and 3000 negro slaves.

The Cape Verd isles were discovered by the Portuguese in 1446. They are ten in number, the two largest being that of St. Jago in the S. E. and St. Anthony in the N. W. The air is hot and unhealthy, and most of the isles stony and barren; the chief trade being in salt and goat skins. Some produce rice, maize, bananas, lemons, oranges, citrons, with cotton and sugar canes; and there is abundance

of poultry. Ribira, the chief town and bishopric, is in St. Jago.

Far to the north the Canary Islands, or Fortunate Islands of the ancients, form an interesting range from west to east. They were conquered by the French in 1402 under the celebrated Jean de Bethencourt, afterwards styled king of the Canaries. The isle strictly called Canary is smaller than Fuerta Ventura and Tenerif. The latter is the most remarkable on account of its peak, which was found 1742 toises above the level of the sea, or about 5000 feet lower than Mont Blanc. It is said to be visible at the distance of *eighty* leagues. This celebrated mountain cannot be ascended, on account of the snows, except from the middle of July to the end of August. The summit can only be ascended by a zig-zag path on the south. The cold is extreme; the nails become black, and the hands and feet swell. In the middle of the summit is a deep reversed cone, called the cauldron, about fifty fathoms in diameter. The perpendicular depth being about 150 feet. Around are many little mouths, from one to four inches in diameter. The largest hole, about eight inches in diameter, is within the crater, exhaling with a sound like the bellowing of a bull, and the smoke is so hot as instantly to burn the hair of the hand.

The chief trees are wild olives, cypresses, laurels, and pines of two kinds. The product of these islands is wheat barley, and oats; and the excellent Canary wine is chiefly from Tenerif and Palma, which also yield considerable quantities of sugar; while Gomera is noted for silk; and the tree yielding the gum called dragon's blood is not uncommon. They have most European domestic animals. The capital of the seven inhabited islands is the town of Palma, in the Isle of Canary; but Tenerif is the most populous. The inhabitants are computed at 140,000; of whom 64,000 belong to Tenerif, in which isle the governor usually resides, though the royal audience, of which he is president, be established at the capital of Canary. The wine is chiefly exported by the English. Filtering stones, from the Isle of Canary, and from Fuerta Ventura, also form an article of traffic.

The Island of Madeira is chiefly remarkable for excellent wines, being about 18 leagues in length by seven in breadth. The capital, Funchal, the residence of the governor and bishop, is in a fertile vale, on the south side of the isle, a

handsome town, with about 11,000 inhabitants, there being about 64,000 in the whole island. The chief trade is with the English, who export about ten or twelve thousand pipes of wine annually: the remainder about seven thousand, being consumed in the country. The richest merchants are English or Irish Catholics.

At the distance of about nine degrees, or 540 g. miles, to the N. W. are the islands of Azores, of which the chief are St. Michel, Tercera, Pico or the Peak, and Fayal, with two smaller ones far in the west called Florez and Corvo. These isles were all discovered by the Portuguese before 1449, who gave them the name from the number of goshawks, which they observed here remarkably tame, there being neither man nor quadruped.—In 1466 the Portuguese king gave them to his sister the Dutchess of Burgundy. They were colonized by Flemings and Germans. These isles are generally mountainous, and exposed to earthquakes and violent winds; yet they produce wheat, wine, fruits, and abundance of woad.—The chief island is Tercera, and the capital town Angra.

The harbour of Fayal presents a beautiful amphitheatre clothed with trees; the town has 5000 inhabitants, but may be said to consist chiefly of convents. The climate and soil are excellent, there being no occasion for fire in the winter. The trees are walnuts, chesnuts, white poplars, and particularly the arbutus or strawberry tree, the name for Fayal in the Portuguese implying a strawberry.

FINIS.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



0 019 895 294 1